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ABSTRACT

This handbook presents guidelines for developing and implementing inservice teacher training programs on multicultural education and school desegregation. Developed by the Ways to Improve Education in Desegegated Schools (WIEDS) project of the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (Austin, Texas), the guidelines are based on data from the WIEDS information base and various research reports. Following an introductory section that provides a theoretical and conceptual background on multicultural education, school desegregation, and inservice education, the handbook presents separate guidelines for planning and implementing programs concerned with each of these areas. A WIEDS Inservice Education Process Model, designed to complement the guidelines and enhance implementation of an effective training program, is then described. The model has five components: (1) planning; (2) preparation; (3) implementation; (4) application; and (5) evaluation. Each component is discussed in detail. Also included in the handbook are an annotated list of recommended eadings, a bibliography, and forms for use in planning an inservice training program. (MJL)

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A HANDBOOK FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION: GUIDELINES FOR TRAINING, MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION AND DESEGREGATION

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by

Al King

Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
Preston C. Kronkosky, Executive Director

Division of Family School and Community Studies
David L. Williams, Jr., Director

November, 1982

UD 022 712

Preston C. Kronkosky, Executive Director
Southwest Educational Development Laboratory
211 East Seventh Street
Austin, Texas
512-476-6861

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
INTRODUCTION	1
Review of the Literature	2
Rationale	6
Assumptions	8
Definitions	9
Conceptual Framework of Integration	12
GUIDELINES	17
Desegregation Guidelines	17
Multicultural Education Guidelines	20
Inservice Education Guidelines	24
Summary	33
WIEDS INSERVICE EDUCATION PROCESS MODEL	36
Planning	36
Preparation	44
Implementation/Delivery	53
Application/Adoption	54
Evaluation	60
CONCLUSION	72
RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER READING	73
Desegregation and Integration	73
Multicultural Education	79
Inservice Education	84
REFERENCES	89
APPENDICES	109

A. Workshop Planning and Preparation Form
B. Inservice Budget Sheet
C. Consultant Services Checklist
D. Consultant Data Sheet
E. Checklist for Workshop Materials and Equipment

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page
1.	The Integration Process: A Conceptual Framework	14
2.	Specific Indicators for Assessing Desegregation Status	15
3.	WIEDS Inservice Education Process Model	37
4.	Levels of Use of the Innovation	55
5.	Evaluation Model and Definitions	61
6.	Evaluation Plan Outline After Needs Assessment	63
7.	Measurement Procedures Criteria	64
8.	Examples of Measurement Procedures	67
9.	Basic Systems Model of Evaluation	69

PREFACE

This publication, one result of a three-year study by the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL), provides information and strategies which will contribute both to quality of education and to equality of opportunity.

Equal educational opportunity has been a significant theme within SEDL's work since the institution's creation in 1966. The same theme continues to be an important part of our commitment to meeting the educational needs of the next decade. We are pleased to make this publication available to you.

Preston C. Kronkosky, Ph.D.
Executive Director

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

More than 400 people have contributed directly to the Ways to Improve Education in Desegregated Schools (WIEDS) Project. Parents, students, community representatives, and educators generously gave time, effort, and expertise to help improve multicultural education, desegregation processes, and inservice training. WIEDS staff acknowledges the invaluable contribution of the survey and interview respondents in school districts and Desegregation Assistance Centers in the six-state Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) region (Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, New Mexico, Oklahoma, and Texas). And, in a spirit of cooperation and professional interest, a number of desegregation leaders, multicultural educators, and inservice experts reviewed drafts of the model and guidelines and directed pilot tests of them.

Grateful acknowledgment is given to the superintendents and their liaisons who facilitated the surveys and interviews in their schools. These include Norman J. Gaines (Muskogee, Oklahoma, Public Schools), Harold H. Gauthe (Lafayette, Louisiana, Public Schools), Ed Irons, E. C. Leslie, and Howard Price (Lubbock, Texas, Independent School District), Kenneth Loflin, James A. Hefter, and Connie Moore (Meridian, Mississippi, Public Schools), Paul Masem, Beverly White, and Joyce Springer (Little Rock, Arkansas, Public Schools), James P. Miller and Walter J. Burke (Santa Fe, New Mexico Public Schools), and Cristobal Trujillo (New Mexico State Department of Education).

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Several SEDL staff members contributed to the preparation of the manuscript for this Handbook. David L. Williams, Jr., Director of the Division of Family, School, and Community Studies, was primarily responsible for the inception and early development of the WIEDS Project which generated the data base for the Handbook. Since then, he has contributed substantially to every phase of the project. His suggestions for the manuscript, and his patience with its progress, are appreciated. Domingo Dominguez, Director of the Division of Bilingual and International Education, suggested improvements in the Process Model for Inservice Education. The idea for the "Conceptual Framework of the Integration Process" was contributed by Martha Boethel of the Office of Institutional Communications. Christina Fernandez, WIEDS staff member

during final preparation of the manuscript, helped make a number of improvements in it. The Regional Exchange Project Coordinator, Nancy Baker Jones, has read portions of each draft of the Handbook, and it is the better for her editorial suggestions. The preparation of the manuscript depended on the efficiency and skills of WIEDS staff member Sylvia Lewis. While indebtedness to these many contributors is acknowledged, the Senior Researcher with Project WIEDS has full responsibility for the content of this Handbook.

Al King
Senior Researcher
WIEDS
December 1982

INTRODUCTION

Public schools in the U.S. have recently borne the brunt of social changes so rapid and unsettling as to be revolutionary. At the same time, schools have become a battleground for groups of sincere people representing myriad ideologies and special interests. Since the Supreme Court ruled that racially segregated education is inherently unequal, desegregation has been one of the most challenging and convoluted issues in public schooling.

Inservice education has typically been the assistance provided by school districts to help their staffs meet challenges and solve problems. It is perhaps difficult at any time in the history of the United States to overestimate the value of inservice education for teachers and other school staff members. Such training is even more important now. But a great many teachers and other staff members have expressed dissatisfaction with the quality and quantity of inservice training available to them (Luke, 1980).* A review of the literature indicates that inservice training and multicultural education do not receive adequate attention as effective strategies for desegregation and integration.

The purposes of the Ways to Improve Education in Desegregated Schools (WIEDS) have been to develop an information base about successful desegregation strategies and to use it to construct a model and guidelines for schools to use in planning inservice education activities. WIEDS developed its substantial data base by: (1) reviewing desegregation and inservice education literature; (2) analyzing the U.S. Commission on Civil Rights Desegregation Case Studies and the National Institute of Education Desegregated Schools Ethnographies; (3) surveying 148 central office administrators and General Assistance Center personnel; (4) interviewing 193 administrators, teachers, students, and parents and other community

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*References are on pp. 88 ff.

representatives; and (5) studying selected inservice education programs of schools in the Southwest Educational Development Laboratory (SEDL) region.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

There has been considerable research on the significance of multicultural education and inservice training with respect to educational equity. Irwin Katz (1968) concluded from his review of desegregation studies that the several factors that influenced Black students' academic performance included social conditions in the school and classroom, the degrees of acceptance by significant others (particularly White teachers and peers), and the Black pupil's self-concept in regard to the probability of social and academic success or failure. After a review of desegregation/integration research, Nancy St. John (February 1970) concluded that the most plausible hypothesis was that the relation between desegregation and achievement is conditional, that the academic performance of minority group children will be higher in integrated than in equivalent segregated schools, provided they are supported by staff and accepted by peers.

The behavior and attitudes of teachers and other school staff should reflect an appreciation of the various cultures represented by the school's diverse student body. Since 1970, there has been a growing pool of empirical research available on the correlation between the behavior and attitudes of teachers and the attitudes and academic performance of pupils as well as how to improve that performance (e.g., Krantz, 1970; Good and Brophy, 1973; Gay, 1975; Hawley et al., April 1981; Rossell et al., April 1981; Crain, Mahard, and Narot, 1982). The development of sophisticated and reliable data collection tools such as the Flanders System of Interactional Analysis (see in Amidon and Hough, 1967), Brophy and Good's (1969) Teacher-Child Dyadic Interaction System, as well as

sociometric scales and bipolar semantic differential scales (see Bonjean, et al., 1967) have been important in assessing teacher attitudes and behavior toward pupils. The results of most investigations using these tools yield rather convincing data that teacher behavior strongly affects pupil behavior and has important implications for minority children (Gay, 1975).

The work of Mendels and Flanders (1973) indicates that "naturalistic" input is powerful in determining teachers' attitudes toward their students. The naturalistic factors include, among other things, perceived physical attractiveness, socioeconomic status, and ethnicity (Gay, 1975). Frequently, more than one of these factors are present to influence teachers' attitudes and behavior toward the more visible minority children.

U.S. social science literature documents the majority view of the culturally different as inferior, culturally, intellectually, and socially (Kane, 1970; and Stent, Hazard, and Rivlin, 1973). Four relevant studies were conducted in the southwestern United States during the early 1970's--the U.S. Civil Rights Commission, Toward Quality Education for Mexican Americans (1974), and W. J. Barnes (1973), Geneva Gay (1974), and Lana Mangold (1974) on Hispanic, Black, and Anglo teachers' verbal and non-verbal interactions with Hispanic, Black, and Anglo pupils. These studies indicate that White students receive more praise, encouragement, and opportunities for substantive interaction with teachers, while teacher contacts with Black and Hispanic students are mostly procedural, negative, and disciplinary. The findings strongly suggest that student ethnicity is one of the major determinants of teachers' attitudes and behavior toward their students; that teachers, including minority teachers, expect less of minority students and give them fewer opportunitites and less encouragement and positive feedback; that these conditions are detrimental to the quality of education; and that many

minority children are being denied equal opportunity for quality education.

Educational investigators have agreed upon the significance of (1) teacher attitudes and behavior towards pupils, (2) that teacher-student interactions are the heart of the educational process, and (3) that teachers are "significant others" in students' lives (Gage, 1963; Purkey, 1970). Although Washington (1968), Banks (1970), Banks and Grambs (1972), and Gay (1975) argued cogently that teachers are especially important in the lives of ethnic minority students, other investigators and educators belatedly applied these points to desegregation. Even though a great deal of desegregation research occurred in the 1960's and 1970's, relatively little has been done on how to implement the findings in the school and classroom. That a school's program could affect the outcomes of desegregation was supported by findings by Garlie Forehand and her colleagues. Their Final Report: Conditions and Processes of Effective School Desegregation (1976), indicated that multicultural school activities and attitudes tended to improve race relations as well as academic achievement by Black students in the school.

Robert Howsam et al. pointed out the need for training to implement multicultural education. In their Educating a Profession (1976), they recognized that most educators were reared in middle- or lower middle-class homes and communities, away from minority and lower socio-economic groups. The seriousness of this situation was recognized and pointed out by the board of directors of teacher preparation institutions themselves, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE, 1976). They observed that most teachers do not have adequate knowledge of the various cultural systems from which their pupils come, and it had been assumed for too long that any "good teacher" could provide for the learning needs of children from diverse cultural backgrounds. As evidenced in low student achievement rates, said the AACTE, there was an impelling need for reform.

The lack of multicultural education for and by educators undoubtedly contributes to what has been called second generation desegregation problems. Arising after the physical desegregation of students and staff, these problems prevent schools from providing effective education for all students. They can be characterized as acts of omission or commission that continue discrimination or effects of past discrimination against minority groups.

Although their impact is destructive, such negative attitudes and behavior receive less attention perhaps because they are not so overt as, say, a stated policy that maintains a segregated school district. Some second generation problems are: (1) reduction of public support for desegregated public schools, as shown especially by resegregation or White flight; (2) segregation of students within "desegregated" schools; (3) retention of segregated or monocultural curricula; (4) placement of disproportionate numbers of minority students in special education classes or lowest academic "tracks"' (5) suspension, expulsion, or other punishment of disproportionately high percentages of minority students (King, 1981).

Desegregation literature is replete with studies, reports, and monographs indicating the need for effective multicultural education. After analyzing 120 studies of school desegregation, St. John (1975) concluded that further investigation of the general question--"Does desegregation benefit children?"--would seem a waste of resources. Rather, the pressing need is to discover the school conditions under which the benefits of mixed schooling are maximized and its hardships minimized. It is important to note, as did Diana Kirk and Susan Goon (1975), that these conditions--identified in studies reviewed by themselves, St. John, and in others discussed earlier--are not unique to success for minority students in a desegregated setting, but they are vitally important to academic success for anyone in any educational setting.

From these studies, it may be concluded that in an integrated, multicultural setting: (1) the level of academic achievement rises for the minority children while relatively advantaged majority children continue to learn at the same or higher rate, (2) minority children may gain a more positive self-concept, and (3) positive racial attitudes by minority and majority students develop as they attend school together (see also Weinberg, 1977a, 1977b; Edmonds, 1979; Bennett, May 1979; Epps, 1979).

RATIONALE

The data collected in earlier phases of the WIEDS Project through surveys and interviews indicate important desegregation-related needs, but also ways to meet those needs and provide a multicultural setting. The need areas include: (1) cultural awareness; (2) interpersonal relations; (3) curriculum integration; (4) pupil self-concept, motivation, and dropouts; (5) expulsions/suspension; (6) teaching methods and learning styles; (7) parental involvement; (8) resegregation; (9) segregation within the classroom and extracurricular activities; and (10) bilingual education within desegregation. Inservice education by itself cannot totally meet all of these needs. But it seems clear from Project findings that schools are not likely to meet these needs without an effective inservice program.

There is no one best way to program inservice training. There are too many important and dynamic variables interacting, especially in the desegregation process. In the development of the following model and guidelines, consideration has been paid to differing general circumstances, such as: stages of desegregation/integration, whether desegregation is mandated or voluntary, ethnic composition of students and staff, elementary or secondary level, whether rural, urban, or suburban, history of race relations, experience in inservice, and other variables. The

model and guides offered here provide flexibility without violating assumptions about the worth of the individual and the value of multicultural education. These guidelines and the model are intended as a general mapping of principles and processes of adult education in the critical and sometimes sensitive setting of desegregated schools.

While emphasis here is on training for desegregation and multicultural education, the principles and processes are sound for general inservice education. It is not necessary to have one inservice education program for desegregation and another for everything else. In most instances it is probably desirable that they merge. An exception, of course, is the not uncommon situation of implementing desegregation suddenly with little or no preparation. This situation frequently exists after protracted litigation that ends with a court order for desegregation. Then desegregation becomes a crash program. Even so, it is appropriate to include multicultural education in the general inservice program.

Desegregation brings opportunities through new content and processes. Multicultural education, training in effective communication, interpersonal relations, and parental involvement begin to receive attention. It is unfortunate that these programs are so often singularly associated with desegregation. Their value as preparation for life in a culturally pluralistic world is useful for all students, whether in a desegregated or a racially isolated school. Although it may be more difficult in racial isolation, a multicultural concept is no less important, whether it be an Anglo or a minority school. And the need for good race relations, effective communication, and home-school cooperation are not peculiarly related to desegregation. The teacher with increased awareness, knowledge, and skills in these areas will tend to be more effective in teaching majority as well as minority children.

In no sense do teachers and schools control whether students will receive a multicultural education; the "societal curriculum" is already providing one. The societal curriculum is defined by Carlos Cortés (April 1979) as "that massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family, peer groups, neighborhoods, mass media, and other socializing forces that 'educate' us throughout our lives." Cortés persuasively argues that educators and students need to be made aware of the misinformation about ethnicity being "taught" by the societal curriculum and how it negatively affects what people "know" about, and how they act toward people of other culture groups. What schools can do is to provide quality multicultural education, helping students develop societal curriculum literacy and become "more aware, sensitive, and effective citizens of the future" (Cortés, April 1979).

ASSUMPTIONS

These guidelines were prepared with certain assumptions in mind about multicultural education and inservice education. These assumptions have emerged from experience and studies (e.g., Berman and McLaughlin, April 1975 and April 1977; King et al., November 1979; Klausmeier et al., 1980; Knowles, 1980; Hawley et al., 1981; Levine, 1981; Crain et al., 1982; and Harris and Hill, 1982), and are implicit in the WIEDS inservice education guidelines.

Assumptions about multicultural education.

- Each person has inherent value and worth simply because s/he is a human being. This includes children.
- A goal of public education is to prepare students for a full life, to help them develop their abilities and skills to interact positively and effectively with other people.

- Because its multiethnic population is one of the realities and valuable resources of the United States and because many individuals' feelings of worth are predicated in some degree upon their cultural background, multicultural education is vital in the preparation of a child for a full and productive life in our society.

- There are a number of sound general strategies and skills which can promote good education in schools. Most of these, and some more specialized strategies and skills, can help improve education in desegregated schools.

Assumptions about inservice education.

- Even schools that are functioning effectively in many ways can make improvements.

- School staffs are professionally concerned about education and want to improve their practices.

- Significant improvements in education practices require a total school effort.

- School staffs have the capability to improve; however, resources, space, and especially time must be arranged so that the total school staff can participate in improvement activities.

- Teachers, administrators, and other school and district staff possess important expertise.

- Professional improvement is an individual, long-term, developmental process, wherein staff members fit innovative concepts to their own concerns, styles, and situations.

DEFINITIONS

One of the findings of the WIEDS study is that there is no universal agreement on definitions of the

terms "staff development" and "inservice education" or "desegregation" and "integration" and other related terms. These are defined below as used in the WIEDS Project.

Staff development - any personnel change efforts to improve education; includes two aspects: (1) inservice education, and (2) staffing (selection, promotion, assignment, etc.).

Inservice education - any planned activity to assist school personnel in improving their professional effectiveness after employment. The activity can be undertaken individually or with others, informally or in a structured context. The improvement can be through the acquisition of knowledge, changes in attitude, and development of skills, including interpersonal skills.

Race - a more or less distinct human population group distinguished by genetically transmitted physical characteristics.

Culture - the totality of socially transmitted behavior patterns within an identifiable group; includes language; social customs (as family organization); ethics and values, including religion; diet; and costume (in the sense of traditional dress).

Ethnic group - a group with a common cultural background (see above); not synonomous, but may be coterminous, with race.

Multicultural education is an educational program based on a view of the larger society as being made up of a number of cultures which are different but none is superior to any other and each is equally respected. Multicultural education includes instruction and curricula which foster a world view of cultural pluralism. Multicultural instruction takes into account the individual's culture as well as other aspects of his/her background which are relevant to

the student's dignity, needs, and learning styles. Multicultural curriculum is relevant to local as well as national cultures, and meets the individual student's need to know of his/her own culture as well as those of others.

Bilingual education - in the sense of the Bilingual Education Act of 1968, is a program to incorporate the use of two languages, one of which is English, as media of instruction for those children who have limited English speaking ability. A bilingual education program encompasses part or all of the curriculum and includes the study of the history and culture associated with the student's native tongue. A complete bilingual program is to develop and maintain the child's self-esteem and legitimate pride in both cultures. In a broader sense, bilingual education in the United States is a medium of instruction which utilizes the cultural and linguistic characteristics of non-English speakers as a means for teaching and learning as well as for developing literacy skills in English. In more of a multicultural sense, bilingual education is often referred to as "bilingual-bicultural education." This is a process of developing two languages in students, not just helping them until they learn English. It also helps English-speaking children learn a second language.

Segregation - the involuntary isolation of a group or groups of people on the basis of race or some other characteristic, can be de jure (by law) or de facto (by practice).

Desegregation - the ending of segregation, the bringing together of previously segregated groups.

Integration is the situation wherein people of different groups tend to interact cooperatively on a basis of equal status and trust, as they know, understand, and respect each other's culture and contributions.

Whether de jure or de facto, segregation has included perceptions of superiority and concentration of power with the group who segregates and discriminates against those segregated. It has bred separatism, misunderstanding, mistrust, fear, and conflict between the groups involved.

Many school districts have resisted desegregation, sometimes practicing tokenism and otherwise maintaining status quo discrimination against minorities. Other districts have accepted the letter and the spirit of the law to desegregate and have made "good faith" efforts to provide equal educational opportunitites and an atmosphere which promotes the expansion of viewpoints, new learning, and trust. Frequently, these good faith efforts are characterized by relatively isolated ethnic awareness and human relations workshops, as well as by "add-on" curricular changes with more or less isolated "units," such as for American Indian study, or celebrations of Black History Week or Cinco de Mayo. This kind of mixing of the curriculum corresponds to the physical mixing of student body and staff.

Similarly, integration can apply to the curriculum, with Black cowboys and Mexican American vaqueros, for example, as integral parts of western U.S. history. To implement such a curriculum, the staff and faculty of the integrated school have developed necessary knowledge and skills through purposeful inservice education programs.

CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF INTEGRATION

The progression from segregation to the integration stage is not automatic, but requires much thought, planning, and work from parents and other community representatives. Progress from segregation on through desegregation to integration is not automatic, but requires much thought, planning, and work from parents and other community representatives as

well as from students, school boards, administrators, teachers, and all other school personnel. If the school and community do not plan and work together, a school or entire district may well go from segregation to desegregation, but from there not to integration but to resegregation, a situation wherein some parents have relocated or otherwise acted to place their children in other public or in private schools with fewer or no minority children. Rather than a desegregation-to-integration environment which fosters understanding and cooperation, poorly planned and implemented desegregation can lead to fear, confusion, conflict, and crisis.

To assist in understanding the concepts of "desegregation" and "integration" and their relationship, the WIEDS staff has developed a conceptual framework for the integration process (see Figure 1). The conceptual model provides general indicators as to whether a school system's policies and practices reflect:

- de jure segregation (specified by both policy and practice);
- de facto segregation (accomplished by routine practice despite the absence of official policy);
- token desegregation (essentially paper compliance, policy without practice);
- good faith desegregation (movement toward change supported by both policy and practice);
- race equity only; or
- equity for all groups, including women, racial and ethnic minorities, handicapped persons, etc.

The conceptual framework (Figure 1), when used with the Policies and Practices to Consider When Assessing Desegregation Status (Figure 2), also

THE INTEGRATION PROCESS: A CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK
Segregation
Desegregation
Integration
Resegregation
De Jure
In Facto
Token
Good Faith
Race Equity Only
Equity for all Groups
STAGES
TYPES
INDICATORS
LIKELY OUTCOMES
Separation, Misunderstanding, Fear, Conflict, & Lower Achievement
Status Quo
Broadened Viewpoints & Insights
Understanding, Appreciation, Respect, Cooperation, & Higher Achievement for All Groups Affected

Figure 1

POLICIES AND PRACTICES TO CONSIDER
WHEN ASSESSING DESEGREGATION STATUS

Employment Practices

- Policies regarding recruitment, employment, promotion, tenure, lay off, nepotism, job assignments, pay scales.
- Representation of gender or race in various job classifications and work assignments; salary levels; workloads.

Access to Educational Programs

- Policies regarding eligibility for admission to, enrollment or participation in, and/or graduation from specified educational programs or courses.
- Enrollments in school programs/courses; development of specific plans for change; staff training and orientation activities.

Curriculum Content

- Policies regarding textbook adoption, curriculum content.
- Use of race biased/fair textbooks and curriculum materials; allocation of resources for purchase of gender based/fair materials; provision of inservice and/or other training to counteract race bias in materials.

Classroom Practices/Student Treatment

- Policies regarding student behavior, discipline, dress codes, honors and awards, access to classroom materials and facilities.
- Incidence of differential treatment; development of specific guidelines for classroom practices; provision of quality inservice training; procedures for monitoring, evaluating progress.

Counseling Procedures and Materials

- Policies regarding use of counseling materials, testing instruments, counseling procedures.
- Incidence of differential treatment in counseling activities; use of race biased or fair materials and tests; allocation of resources for purchase of race fair materials; provision of inservice training for guidance counselors.

Extracurricular Activities

- Policies regarding function and composition of teams, clubs, organizations, access to facilities, eligibility for participation.
- Composition of and levels of participation in extracurricular teams, clubs, organizations; allocation of resources to support activities; use of school facilities.

Home-School Cooperation

- Policies regarding relationship between school staff-members and parents.
- Two-way communication between home and school; practices which promote appropriate parent roles as teachers (at home), paraprofessionals, volunteers, advisers, and decision-makers.

Figure 2

provides a basis for assessing a school's or district's status in the integration process and for determining the general areas in which improvement is needed. Specific areas of concern include employment practices; access to educational programs; curriculum content; classroom practices/student treatment; counseling procedures and materials; extracurricular activities; and home-school cooperation. A needs assessment (pp. 39-40, 45) in these seven areas which is keyed to the framework in Figure 1 can produce a profile indicating the status of a school or district in the integration process. Results from this assessment should be helpful in selecting appropriate inservice training and, later, in evaluating the success of that training.

GUIDELINES

DESEGREGATION GUIDELINES

Drawing from the experiences--the mistakes and successess--of people in thousands of schools and communities, we now know that a great deal may be done to help provide equal educational opportunity for all children, head off some problems, solve others more easily, and improve the education process while we are about it. We now have a good idea why desegregation went well in some communities and not in others. Following are eight general guidelines which have helped many districts. Inservice education can be instrumental in facilitating each guideline, and in some it is crucial (U.S. Commission on Civil Rights, August 1976; Community Relations Service and National Center for Quality Integrated Education, 1976; Edmonds, 1979; Epps, 1979; Little 1981; Hawley, et al., 1981; and Crain et al., 1982).

Affirmative local leadership promotes peaceful and effective desegregation.

The desegregation process is significantly affected by the support or opposition it receives from local leadership. In communities where local business, political, social, religious, and education leaders have supported school desegregation, it has tended to go relatively smoothly and the community to be more receptive to it. Affirmative leadership by school board members, school administrators, and teacher organizations is crucial for peaceful and effective desegregation. Assertive policies and actions from these leaders include (1) informing and involving the community, (2) making positive public statements for desegregation and integration and against discrimination, and (3) initiating and supporting such facilitative programs and practices as multicultural education, equitable discipline and

extracurricular activities, affirmative action personnel policies, and effective inservice education for themselves and all school personnel.

Community support is important in the desegregation process.

Local leadership can bring about community involvement. Local citizens are instrumental in determining whether desegregation is effective. Where the community supports desegregation and cooperates in facilitating it, the process is far more likely to be smooth and beneficial. School leaders have a major responsibility in obtaining community support.

School leaders should promote two-way communication with others affected by desegregation.

Each stage of desegregation requires a particular type of conscious and coordinated effort to give complete and correct information to all people in the school and to as many people in the community as possible. One important function of inservice education is how to disseminate information. Unless this communication takes place, many school personnel, as well as community members, are likely to be ill-informed or misinformed about important legal, political, social, and even educational issues involved in the process.

One-way communication can be effective for informing people, but two-way communication provides opportunities to identify problems, to find out what concerns people most, and to work out means for trying to resolve these problems and issues. Two-way techniques include telephone hotlines, neighborhood meetings and other public forums, and many others.

Approach desegregation as an opportunity to improve education for all students.

The constitutional issue involved in school desegregation is not quality of education per se, but equality of educational opportunity. There is, nevertheless, nothing inherently antithetical about desegregation and educational improvement. And those schools in which integration has worked most smoothly and gained community support for themselves have been those schools which have continued to seek opportunities to meet the educational needs of all students.

Provide inservice training for all school personnel.

It is unrealistic and unfair to implement a desegregation plan without first preparing the people--the total staff and faculty--who will be involved. It is unrealistic to expect a smooth process which will produce desirable results, and it is unfair to ask school personnel to perform their work in a desegregated school, without the appropriate awareness, knowledge, and skills.

Include all grades and schools in desegregation.

The earlier children experience desegregation, the more likely it is that desegregation will have positive effects. Most studies which have found negative desegregation outcomes indicate that it involved older students who had only recently experienced desegregation (Hawley et al., 1981; Crain et al., 1982). Desegregation frequently results in some increase in anxiety among students, but this is usually resolved if they are in a positive environment. The crucial determinant of positive effects of desegregation is nondiscriminatory and supportive behavior by teachers and other school staff (Broh and Trent, 1981; Rossell et al., 1981).

Appropriate administrative and governance systems should be established.

The school district should have administrative and governance systems to help prepare for and implement desegregation. This can be done by a small, professional unit established within the superintendent's office and given appropriate responsibility and authority to coordinate desegregation-related efforts. Rather than usurping ordinary activities from established programs, this unit would coordinate and facilitate their activities with respect to desegregation. For example, the unit would not centrally develop inservice training but could: (1) facilitate the identification of external resources, such as might be available from state agencies and the community, as well as the identification of individuals, materials, etc. within the district which might be helpful to others; (2) coordinate community relations with respect to desegregation; (3) and coordinate formative evaluations of desegregation-related programs (Hawley et al., 1981).

Research and evaluation are necessary for planning and evaluating programs and monitoring progress.

Parents, teachers, principals, and central office administrators need information about how well desegregation is proceeding. This information will probably come from formative evaluation of relevant programs and from data gathering with regard to academic progress and disciplinary actions. For monitoring purposes, data should be kept for the different racial and/or ethnic populations.

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION GUIDELINES

Many schools have ignored the multicultural nature of its community and the larger society. This ill-befits a democracy and inevitably causes conflict

between students and teachers, school and home, and among students of a diverse school population (Clothier et al., 1978). Fortunately, a growing number of educators, educational researchers, and schools have become aware of the advantages of multicultural education and have put it into practice. This has provided opportunities for empirical studies with regard to effective policy and teaching techniques and competencies. The following guidelines for multicultural education are grounded on successful experiences in schools with diverse student populations.

The attitudes and behavior of teachers and staff affect the academic performance of students.

How teachers, principals, and other staff behave toward students and how schools and classrooms are organized are critical factors in determining the effects of desegregation. Better race relations are likely in those schools where:

- principals are supportive of multicultural education and exert leadership for it;
- teachers are relatively unprejudiced and supportive and insistent on high performance and racial equality;
- any achievement grouping or tracking does not result in racial isolation;
- positive social goals (e.g., good race relations and race and gender equity) are emphasized by teachers, principals, and staff;
- parents are involved in educating their children;
- multicultural curricular materials are used;
- faculties and staffs are integrated;

- ongoing inservice programs emphasize practices relating to successful desegregation;

- interaction among races is strongly encouraged both in the classroom and in extracurricular activities.

The last factor seems to be the most important. It may be that without considerable interracial contact--interaction within classrooms and schools, in learning and play--other approaches to improving race relations, such as teacher workshops, class discussions, or curriculum revisions, will probably have unimportant consequences.

Prepare all teachers, administrators, and other staff for desegregated, multicultural education.

AACTE surveys in 1977 indicated that at least twenty states had passed legislation endorsing multicultural education, with some even requiring some measure of it for teacher certification. Further, many higher education agencies had developed Black studies, Mexican American studies, Native American studies, Asian American studies, or other minority studies programs of some form. Nevertheless, the results of the legislation and programs were disappointing. There were exceptions, but on many campuses the minority studies programs were isolated and had little if any impact on teacher education (Banks, 1975b; Eko, 1973; Gibbs, 1974; Katz, 1973; Sanchez, 1972; West, 1974). Multicultural courses offered in teacher-training curricula were frequently elective, and prospective teachers received little encouragement to enroll in them (Katz, 1973; Sullivan, 1974; West, 1974; Rivlin and Gold, 1975; Arciniega, 1975; Smith, 1969; E. F. Garcia 1974; Hilliard, 1974; Hunter, 1974; AACTE, 1976; Baptiste, 1977; Braun, 1977). This makes effective inservice education all the more critical.

Cultural pluralism is more useful than the "melting pot" concept in education for a diverse, democratic society.

The melting pot, wherein the objectives were assimilation and the effacement of cultural diversity, worked only to the advantage of some White groups or individuals of other groups lightly colored enough to "pass," because the "one model American" of the melting pot was White, Anglo-Saxon, Protestant, and middle or upper income (cf. AACTE, 1973; California State Department of Education, 1977). The further from this ideal, the more handicapped one was in being successful. As Rev. Jesse Jackson has observed, many Americans of color "stuck to the bottom of the pot" (National Education Association, 1975). And Colin Greer (1972) has pointed out that the melting pot of education did not assimilate many White immigrant children.

Rather than the melting pot, a more culturally pluralistic concept is the "stew pot." In the "stewing" process, the ethnic "ingredients" take on and give off "flavors" without losing identity, pride, or opportunities. From 1916 when John Dewey introduced the concept of "cultural pluralism" in an address to the National Education Association (see Hunter, 1974), there have been different ideological values assigned to it (e.g., Stent et al., 1973; Banks, 1975a). Probably the usage most consistent with democratic ideals is one which is based on the development of an American society in which many ethnic groups live in a symbiotic relationship, where cultural differences are respected to the extent that no culture is seen as superior to another. Cultural pluralism does not deny the existence of differences in culture, but values such differences and sees no reason for asking anyone to reject his or her cultural identity in order to have dignity and equal opportunity. While there would be no pressure on anyone to assimilate into another culture, one would have freedom to do so if he or she chose (see Aragon, 1973; Epps, 1974; Hunter, 1974; Banks, 1975a; Rist, 1978; Passow, 1975; and Bennett, January 1979 and May 1979).

INSERVICE EDUCATION GUIDELINES

Preparing educators to function successfully in a multicultural setting is a professional challenge. Until all are effectively trained in schools of education, it can only be done through inservice training. The literature on inservice education has greatly increased in recent years. While a review of this literature discloses virtually no convergence of conclusions, there is near consensus on one point: the state of inservice training practice is deplorable, although much is known about sound principles for effective training practices.* More specific guides,

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*Sources for the following guidelines include WIED's own findings, as well as The Inservice Teacher Education Concepts Project (Nicholson and Joyce, 1976; Yarger, et al., 1976; Brandt, et al., 1976); the educational change studies sponsored by the Rand Corporation (Berman and McLaughlin, 1975, 1977, 1978; see also Datta, 1978), and the Institute for Development of Education Activities (Goodlad, 1972, 1975, 1977), the Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM) research (Hall and Loucks, 1977, 1978; Hall and Rutherford, 1976); the findings of the Phi Delta Kappa's Commission on Professional Renewal (King, et al., 1977); the Teacher Corps Research Adaption Cluster research (Morris, et al., 1979); as well as recent overviews and analyses of inservice education (Rubin, 1970, 1978; Edelfelt, 1974; Lawrence, 1974; Edelfelt and Lawrence, 1975; Edelfelt and Johnson, 1975; Howey, 1976; Howsam, 1977; Beegle and Edelfelt, 1977; Fullan and Pomfret, 1977; Zigarmi, Betz, and Jenson, 1977; Edelfelt and Smith, 1978; Gage, 1978; Pinar, 1978; McNeil, 1978; "Staff Development: New Demands, New Realities, New Perspectives," September 1978; Hutson, 1979; Ryor, Shanker, and Sandefur, 1979; Feiman and Floden, 1980; Gagne, 1980; Harris, 1980; Joyce and Showers, 1980; Wood and Thompson, 1980), and studies and analyses dealing specifically with desegregation and/or multicultural education and inservice education (Mosley and Flaxman, 1972; Davidson, 1973; Davison, 1974; Wayson, 1975; Braun, 1977; Hillman, 1977; Marsh, 1977; Valverde, 1978, Sutman, et al., 1979).

details, and examples are included in the narrative of the model (pages 37-71).

Planning and content of inservice education should ... in response to assessed needs and priorities.

Inservice training should be based on assessed needs. Because it is unlikely that all needs can be met at once, priorities must be set. Priorities for desegregation-related inservice may differ according to stages of implementation. During early planning and preparation, needs may concentrate on community relations and knowledge of the desegregation process. Later planning and preparation could focus on problem solving and interpersonal relations skills, conflict prevention and resolution, classroom management/discipline, cultural awareness, developing a multicultural curriculum and integrated extracurricular activities, operating an information center, promoting home-school cooperation, and generally preventing second generation desegregation problems. Post desegregation inservice concerns might include student achievement and solving any second generation problems such as resegregation, in-school segregation, punishment, and dropouts, as well as follow through on earlier efforts.

Preplanning assessment should cover the experience, characteristics, interests, and strengths of the staff, as well as needs. To be a helpful tool, the assessment must be realistic, taken seriously by participants, and the lag time between it and the training be as short as possible. All staff should be represented in all steps of the assessment process and should have opportunities to suggest ways to meet their needs. (A more thorough discussion of needs assessing is included in Planning, pp. 39-40).

Decision-making for inservice education should involve those affected by the decisions.

Sound educational advantages which support collaboration in making decisions for inservice include:

- improving the quality of training with input from multiple perspectives,
- increasing participants' sense of effectiveness (reducing any sense of helplessness with respect to bringing about desirable changes),
- promoting the concept that decisions should be made on the basis of competence rather than position,
- increasing participants' sense of involvement in and "ownership" of the program, thereby promoting their sense of responsibility for making it work.

Adequate funding should be budgeted for training as for any school program.

Inservice education is as amenable to programmatic budgeting as any other carefully planned program. There appears to be no consensus in the literature about a standard of funding, and practices vary widely. A general standard of ten percent of a district's operations budget has been suggested (Howsam, 1977); however, actual funding is considerably lower, possibly averaging less than one-tenth that amount.

Unanticipated needs should be budgeted for, especially in preparation for desegregation and in its early stages. At these stages, implementation of desegregation/integration may be considered a "special project" to bring about major changes in a relatively short period of time and thus require a higher level of funding than routine programs (cf. Harris, 1980).

Federal or other government funding is sometimes available for desegregation-related inservice.

Location of inservice should be determined by training requirements and activities.

Generally the most effective site for training is the school. Inservice in the school is not only convenient, it promotes a "job-imbedded" approach to training, which can foster solutions to schoolwide problems, as well as improve the school climate and working relationships. Planning, however, and some training objectives (developing sensitive intrapersonal awareness and interpersonal skills) may be dealt with best in a retreat.

Inservice education is more effective when it is explicitly supported and attended by district and building administrators.

Contrary to the common belief that availability of district funds is the main factor in determining the success and continuation of innovations, district and school-site organizational climates are more important than financial factors. Superintendents are extremely important in determining the success of programs in their districts, as are principals in their schools. The presence of administrators in training sessions tends to produce several good effects, such as "legitimizing" inservice and dispelling the teacher-deficit and "from the top down" models. Administrators at all levels also need specialized training to do their jobs, a facet of staff development often neglected.

Inservice education should be an integral part of the total school program.

Within the most successful schools, inservice is not a "project" but part of a developmental improvement and problem-solving process. Simply having training sessions before schools open or providing infrequent workshops is not likely to produce desirable effects.

Incentives for participation in training programs should emphasize intrinsic professional rewards, although public funds should pay for inservice education.

Research findings contradict any argument that extrinsic rewards such as extra pay, salary credit, or the like will cause teachers or other clients to be committed to a program. Commitment is influenced by at least three factors: (1) whether the innovation offers promise of education improvement and professional growth, (2) administrative support, and (3) governance/planning strategies. Of the three governance/planning strategies--(a) top-down, (b) grassroots, and (c) collaborative--the third has been the most successful for securing involvement, support, and effecting planning (see McLaughlin and Marsh 1978; Yarger, 1976; and pp. 38-39, below).

A corollary to the incentives guideline is that there should be no disincentives such as inconvenient times, locations, or other factors to discourage or penalize participation.

Inservice training programs should offer promise of educational improvement and professional growth.

Ambitious and complex programs which offer intrinsic rewards to participants are likely to be most successful. Such programs are not simple to design and carry

out, but if they are planned and governed collaboratively and are conceptually clear, success is likely.

Program goals should be specific and clear.

According to the Rand Change Agent study (Berman and McLaughlin, 1978), the more specific that teachers felt program goals to be, the more goals the program achieved, the more student improvement was attributed to the program, and the more continued was the use of program methods and materials. An important component of this specificity is conceptual clarity, i.e., the extent to which program staff understand what they are to do and why. Sufficient staff meetings and timely discussion should be held to provide this clarity.

Inservice education should be based on a developmental model, rather than a deficit model.

Within a deficit model, teachers are seen as lacking the professional skills necessary for successful teaching and as needing inservice to remedy these deficiencies. The developmental model, however, is based on the premise that teachers are professionals with valuable abilities and skills and are willing and able to improve continually. Preference for the development model over the deficit is more than a matter of taking a position in a philosophical debate over whether a glass is half full or half empty; teachers, like other people, tend to perform up, or down, to expectations and approach.

Inservice education programs should be locally adaptive.

Well-conceived and well-structured innovative programs whose effectiveness has been proven elsewhere can be quite helpful to a school district. But any

model should be readily adaptable to local conditions, serving as a guide to help people to discover or reveal local needs and available resources through comfortable styles and approaches. Inservice education to implement an innovative program, such as multicultural education, should be part of the professional learning process which helps teachers and administrative staff understand and adapt the innovation to local needs. This is not so much "reinventing the wheel" as it is designing or adapting the wheel's tire to suit local terrain.

Important learning takes place during this adaptation process as the people involved satisfy their needs for information about the innovation. An effective process thus helps to provide conceptual clarity and focus resources and commitment to the innovation.

Implementation of inservice training should model good teaching.

Modeling "good teaching" means different things to different people. Good teaching in inservice training, according to recent literature, is adaptive to classroom conditions, uses experiential activities, encourages self-instructional methods, provides wide choices, and employs demonstrations, supervised trials, coaching, and feedback.

Teachers who have a repertoire of teaching models appropriate to their own style and have skills in using them have a relative advantage (Joyce and Weil, 1978). It is also important for teachers to learn problem-solving skills while increasing their repertoires of proven teaching models or strategies (McLaughlin and Marsh, September, 1978).

Trainers should be competent and suited to the situation.

The issue of who should perform inservice training is a controversial one. Generally, classroom teachers are highly regarded as trainers, while supervisors and administrators are not, and there has been a diminution of the role of higher education agencies (HEAs) in school inservice. Considerations should include whether the subject matter is instructive or administrative in nature; whether content is awareness, knowledge, or skills oriented; and many other variables. But the primary consideration should be competence rather than role group. The literature suggests that no single category of trainer is equally successful with all kinds of training.

Outside agencies and consultants are sources of technical assistance and expertise.

Technical assistance and expertise are frequently available from outside agencies. These include state and federally funded agencies, HEAs, private agencies, as well as other school districts.

A number of these sources offer assistance particularly relevant to desegregation. Many states have Technical Assistance Units funded under Title IV of the 1964 Civil Rights Act specifically to help schools implement desegregation. Their regional counterparts, with similar funding and purposes, are the Desegregation Assistance Centers (DACs). Each school district is in a region served by a Race DAC, National Origin DAC (whose technical assistance includes help with bilingual education), and Sex DAC. Through HEAs, federally funded institutes provide desegregation training for school personnel. Some regional educational development laboratories have desegregation-related projects, funded principally by the National Institute of Education, which provide information and materials. Another valuable source of technical

assistance is project personnel from a school where desegregation has been successfully implemented and demographic variables and history of race relations are similar.

Consultants from inside or outside the system can provide valuable service, if they have the requisite experience, expertise, and time to tailor their service to local needs. They should not, consciously or unconsciously, upstage local project staff, but should mesh with the overall program. The purpose of technical assistance is to help local practitioners to adapt rather than adopt innovations and to help them learn to solve problems rather than to solve problems for them. Outside agencies/consultants should provide neither too much nor too little assistance.

Evaluation of inservice education should be a systematic, ongoing, collaborative process to help improve programs.

As an important and expensive program, inservice education deserves rigorous evaluation. To be an effective training program, it requires rigorous and ongoing evaluation.

An ideal evaluation component is difficult to achieve: resources are usually limited; extensive data from diverse facets and many people are required; timing is critical; and because effective training is collaborative, evaluation feedback is an elaborate process (Harris, 1980). Perhaps this difficulty is the reason that evaluation, although generally said to be one of the most critical components of an inservice program, is one of the most neglected.

Following are some often neglected guidelines for what evaluation of inservice should be (Griffin, September 1978):

- ongoing and formative, to help re-design or modify activities,

- informed by multiple data sources from people at all levels who can help explain the process and consequences of inservice education,

- dependent upon quantitative and qualitative data to broaden understanding of events which bear upon results,

- explicit in providing information about the program's effectiveness, so as not to appear as if it is the participants who are on trial,

- considerate of participants' time and energy by using unobtrusive measures that emerge from the natural setting rather than by imposing additional responsibilities on participants,

- reported in form that can be readily understood by participants and sponsors of the program.

SUMMARY

Following is a summary of the WIEDS' Guidelines:

Desegregation Guidelines

- Affirmative local leadership promotes peaceful and effective desegregation.

- Community support is important in the desegregation process.

- School leaders should promote two-way communication with others affected by desegregation.

- Approach desegregation as an opportunity to improve education for all students.

- Provide inservice training for all school personnel.

- Include all grades and schools in desegregation.

- Ensure administrative capability for thorough planning, preparation, and implementation to foster effective desegregation.

- Research and evaluation are necessary for planning and evaluating programs and monitoring progress.

Multicultural Education Guidelines

- The attitudes and behavior of teachers and staff affect the academic performance of students.

- Prepare all teacher, administrators, and other staff for desegregated, multicultural education.

- Cultural pluralism is more useful than the "melting pot" concept in education for a diverse, democratic society.

Inservice Education Guidelines

- Planning and content of inservice education should be in response to assessed needs.

- Decision-making for inservice education should involve those affected by the decisions.

- Adequate funding should be budgeted for training, as for any school program.

- Location of inservice should be determined by training requirements and activities.

- Inservice education is more effective when it is explicitly supported and attended by district and building administrators.

- Inservice education should be an integral part of the total school program.

- Incentives for participation in training programs should emphasize intrinsic professional rewards, although public funds should pay for inservice education.

- Inservice training programs should offer promise of educational improvement and professional growth.

- Program goals should be specific and clear.

- Inservice education should be based on a developmental model, rather than a deficit model.

- Inservice education programs should be locally adaptive.

- Implementation of inservice training should model good teaching.

- Trainers should be competent and suited to the situation.

- Outside agencies and consultants are sources of technical assistance and expertise.

- Evaluation of inservice education should be a systematic, ongoing, collaborative process to help improve programs.

WIEDS INSERVICE EDUCATION PROCESS MODEL

To complement these guidelines, and to further assist with implementation of an effective training program, the WIEDS Project has developed an Inservice Education Process Model, shown in Figure 3 and explained in the following narrative. As Figure 3 shows, the WIEDS model has five components: (1) Planning, (2) Preparation, (3) Implementation/Delivery, (4) Application/Adoption, and (5) Evaluation. Each component is composed of elements basic to a structured, comprehensive plan that allows for flexibility and for adaptability to local needs and characteristics. In the following discussion, these elements (underlined as they are introduced) are discussed under their respective components.

PLANNING

Most school districts probably need three levels of planning for inservice training: (1) overall, or master, planning, (2) project or program planning, and (3) session planning (Harris, 1980). If each of the three is well conceived and developed, the implementation of any one facilitates implementation of the other two. At each level, the quality of planning is more important than the quantity. Well developed and clearly written plans help focus attention, guide activity, and aid evaluation.

A good plan has authority and is appropriate and complete. Authority comes from those directly affected by the plan as well as those in the power structure who authorize inservice activities and funding. A plan is appropriate if it reflects the needs of those affected by the plan and includes implementation strategies and activities which will work with the participants involved in the training. To be complete, a plan must provide a blueprint for carrying

WIEDS PROCESS MODEL FOR INSERVICE EDUCATION

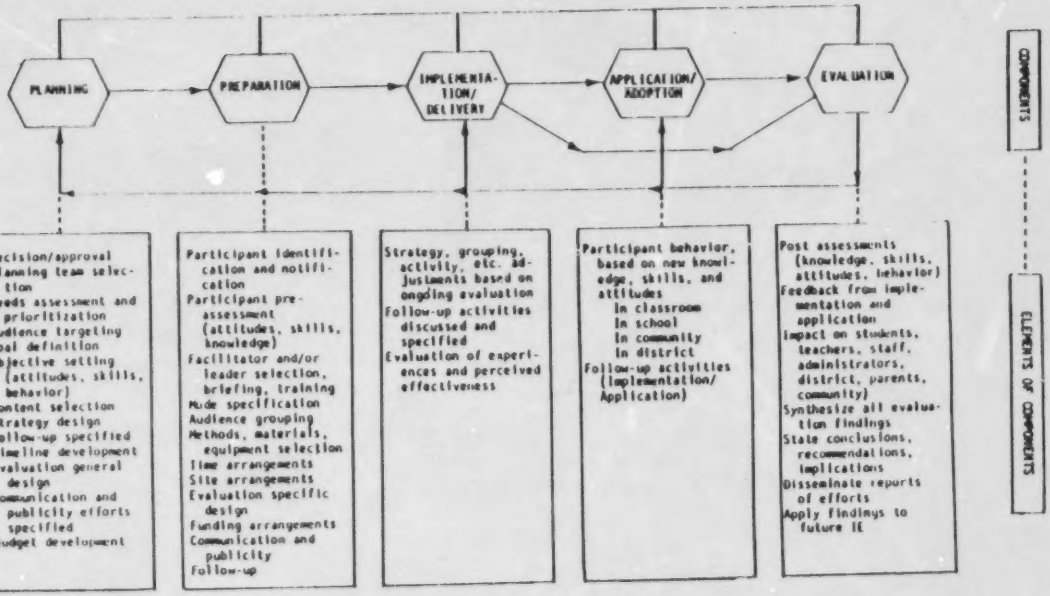

Figure 3

out each element of the other four components of inservice: preparation, implementation/delivery, application/adoption, and evaluation.

As with any educational innovation, inservice education planners should be well informed about their school's desegregation plan in order to win staff commitment to implementing it and to developing an inservice education program to support it. As indicated in the WIEDS Guidelines, desegregation and inservice programs characterized as being successful have had explicit administrative support. This need for effective leadership in no way conflicts with the constructive trend toward collaborative governance.

Membership of all planning teams should reflect a collaborative approach, including racial/ethnic groups and job-roles. All members of each team should themselves be sufficiently trained to implement the WIEDS guidelines for desegregation, multicultural education, and inservice training. Each team member must be thoroughly familiar with the district's desegregation plan and various cultural communities.

Planning teams or committees should parallel the three levels of planning: (1) a central districtwide planning team, (2) a subcommittee or team for planning each project or program, and (3) session planning teams. The third-level team may be made up of members of the level two program team plus such consultants, facilitators, or presenters necessary for effective session planning.

In developing the master plan, the central team defines goals, sets major objectives, assesses and prioritizes needs, allocates funds, develops budgets, targets general audiences, sets schedules, selects content, provides for publicity inside and outside the system, designs the overall evaluation, and provides general direction and monitoring at the district level. The program and session teams, working within the district-level guidelines, plan their respective

levels' objectives, content, strategies, publicity and communication efforts, evaluation design, and audience selection.

Desegregation and multicultural education involve complex relationships and communication processes with other staff as well as with students. And these relationships and processes involve needs which usually require inservice training. In planning and conducting a needs assessment, two bodies of information must be tapped: (1) information related to staff needs and (2) information related to student needs.

Staff-based needs may be divided into institutional requirements and individual needs. Institutional requirements pertain to maintaining certification and to qualifying for advancement "in the ranks." Inservice for desegregation, however, concentrates on the staff's individual needs, those related to day-to-day professional responsibilities of instruction, administration, counseling, bus-driving, food-serving, etc. To carry out these responsibilities in the newly desegregated or desegregating school, the staff will most likely need more than traditional pedagogy, but will need also to develop additional awareness, knowledge, and skills based on diverse students' needs. Relevant student-based data include cultural and socio-economic background, achievement, dropout (rate and causes), and graduate-follow-up-studies information. Many of these data will pertain to emotional as much as to physical and academic needs.

Two principles of assessing staff needs are corollary to the collaborative concept: (1) all staff must be represented in all steps of the assessment process, and (2) all staff should have an opportunity to suggest ways to meet their needs. As with students, staff members have a variety of learning styles which cannot be accommodated by a single training mode. And as in the classroom, creative thinking should be encouraged to prevent monotony in inservice learning activities.

The four steps of assessing needs are: (1) planning, (2) collecting data, (3) tabulating it, and (4) analyzing it. Planning includes determining the most effective means of assessing staff needs: questionnaires, formal or informal interviews, assessment workshops, or a combination of some or all of these. One helpful assessment tool is the Concerns Based Adoption Model (CBAM), which is designed to diagnose not only specific needs, but also concerns of participants in order to provide relevant, individualized training activities (Hall and Loucks, September 1978). These concerns vary according to the stages that an individual experiences in implementing an innovation, ranging from personal to management concerns.

In collecting and tabulating data, it is helpful to obtain and cross tab information on building and personal bases to allow more accurate analysis and effective targeting of the training audience. For example, there is no need to provide inservice activities to increase cultural awareness in all schools of a district, if the need does not exist in all of the schools. Reliable and complete needs assessment data are necessary for the development of an effective inservice plan. Having these data, however, does not conclude the needs assessment. At this point, planning time, creativity, and perhaps expert consultative assistance are required.

The planning team has the task of deciding which needs are of highest priority and considering the resources available to meet them. Only one major need, or a few closely related ones, should be addressed at one time. Inservice goals and objectives are based upon priority needs. A goal is a statement of intentions or of purposes to be achieved. Goals can be short-range or long-range. The way to achieve these goals is through objectives. Objectives should indicate how these goals will be met. Objectives need to be relevant and explicit for the purposes of validating them against the goals they are intended to

achieve. Appropriate activities are then planned and carried out in order to meet the objectives. Objectives may be expressed in behavioral terms that are related directly to the goal and specific needs.

Most traditional inservice efforts have been directed only to teachers as the targeted audience. But the total school staff, including school board personnel, non-certified personnel (e.g., aides, custodians, food service personnel, and bus drivers), parents and community, and sometimes students, should be involved in desegregation and in some training to implement it. The audience will not always include all of these groups; program objectives should dictate the selection of participants.

The core of the training program will be the content. And as objectives must be consistent with set goals, so must content and activities be consistent with objectives. In selecting content, a number of questions should be asked. For example, will there be a menu of choices or will one specific theme or topic be addressed? Will the theme or topics emphasize the cognitive domain (e.g., techniques for increasing the student's achievement in the "basic skills")? Or the affective (e.g., motivation, cultural awareness, and self-concept)?

Strategy design requires considerable thought, even for experienced planners, because it should depend on the interplay of many factors, including content, objectives, available resources and skills, and the audience, to name a few. It may be helpful to develop alternate strategies which can be used if needed. Strategy design encompasses grouping, methodology to be employed (e.g., lecture, role-playing, group discussion), and use of materials (e.g., type of audiovisual aids and whether to use packets or several individual handouts).

Any innovation requires follow-up inservice activities. Some staff members who are implementing

desegregation and multicultural education may need psychological support, in addition to new awareness, skills, and knowledge. The need for follow-up is one reason that inservice should be an integral program rather than a traditional "one-shot" approach. (See more on follow-up activities at p. 52 and under Implementation/Delivery, page 54, and Application/ Adoption, p. 60.

A schedule with a timeline depicting dates of events for all elements of the program components is an important graphic aid for planning, implementing, and monitoring the program. A careful, realistic timeline provides a "map" of events and helps to avoid becoming lost in unfocused details. In budgeting time for inservice, two time frames must be considered, one within the other. The larger frame is the total time allotted to training during the school year (and perhaps in the summer before and/or after). Planning for the best use of that time establishes the detailed time frame within the larger one. If a total of ten days is authorized, should this time be taken one day a month, two days every other month, two hours a week, or how? Considerations of lower limits include beliefs about minimum times likely to be productive. Setting of upper limits should consider physiological needs for foods and rest. A sample Workshop Planning and Preparation Form, adaptable to local agendas, is appended (Appendix A).

Unfortunately for students, parents, teachers, and most others directly affected, preparation for ending segregation frequently does not begin until, after years of legal arguments, a court order or other mandate sets a date for desegregation which leaves little time for preparation. There may even then be a tendency for preparation, if begun at all, to be half-hearted while the school district appeals the mandate. Thus, it is not unusual for inservice training and other preparation for desegregation to begin quite late and without adequate planning.

Not all schools, however, have waited so long to begin. And opportunities for desirable outcomes for all concerned are undoubtedly enhanced when the time frame for training to implement desegregation includes lead time (before school begins) for (1) careful selection of and ten days of training of trainers, including school-based teams; (2) program planning and preparation; and (3) at least five days of inservice for total staff, parents, and community representatives. In addition, there should be a minimum of one day per month of intensive training plus additional time for follow-up coaching, support, and evaluation activities, perhaps on an informal, individual basis. Whatever the time frame, program planners have the problem of fitting objectives and activities to the time available.

Budgeting funds for inservice is similar to budgeting time, in that resources are usually limited and objectives and activities must be fitted to the resource rather than the other way around. While the budget should not determine needs, it almost inevitably influences the decision of which needs are to be met. Budget development requires the best possible information available; otherwise, actual expenditures might exceed estimated costs, causing embarrassing and demoralizing cancellation of planned inservice. To assist with budget design and development, a sample Inservice Budget Sheet is appended (Appendix B).

A good evaluation plan is the best way to determine whether the inservice objectives and goals are met and why or why not. Planners should keep these questions in mind as they design an evaluation plan:

(1) Why evaluate?

(2) Whom is the evaluation for?

(3) How will it be done?

(4) Who will do what?

Evaluation designs are closely linked to the objectives and goals of a project. When goals are clearly stated and specific objectives outlined in ways that can be observed, the task of evaluation is well begun. Continual evaluation requires time and money as well as a strong commitment to plan properly and extensively in order to help improve training programs. (See Evaluation, pp. 60-66 for more on planning evaluation.)

Planning also needs to be done to assure good communication and public relations within the school and district, as well as between the school and district and their constituencies. Inservice leaders dare not remain isolated from others of the school staff, district staff, or from students, parents, and advisory groups. The central tasks are two-way sharing of information and facilitation of cooperation and support. Planning here includes answering the questions of why (goals), how (objectives), what, when, and who will get it done.

PREPARATION

The planning committee may, probably with membership adjustments, serve as the preparation committee. Or the planning committee may appoint, and maintain supervision over, a preparation task force. In any case, the preparation committee/task force should, like the planning committee, be (1) collaborative and broad-based; (2) thoroughly familiar with the community, the desegregation plan, and the theory and practice of effective desegregation; and (3) committed to integration and multicultural education.

Participant identification, selection, and notification in the preparation stage are predicated on the planning stage's audience targeting. A wide array of ways to identify personnel includes job role and school grade level or content area. Notification of training can be made via a workshop agendum, a

school memorandum, posters, newspapers, and personal contact. All available methods for good communication and public relations should be used. Special efforts may need to be made to reach out to parents and community members, especially if they are to be attending for the first time. Personal contacts from planning team members, such as by telephone, may be even more important to parents and community representatives than to school personnel.

If there is any need to refine or fill gaps in the needs assessment from the planning stage, this can be done as training pre-assessment early in the preparation stage. It is important to know how many participants there will be, their past inservice experiences, job responsibilities, and strengths as well as needs in skills, attitudes, and knowledge. This information is essential to the preparation of appropriate content, methodology, and activities for the implementation stage of inservice.

The selection of facilitators and consultants is frequently sensitive and sometimes controversial. A collaborative process tends to defuse potential controversy and can promote the likelihood of quality selections. Ideally, all of the expertise and experience essential to effective training will reside in the committee. This is frequently not the case, however, with inservice for desegregation or any other innovation. Consultant services from outside the school or district may need to be obtained. Before contracting for a consultant, care should be taken to make maximum use of school, district, and readily available volunteer community resources. A needs assessment designed to identify desegregation-related strengths as well as needs should help locate in-house resources. And the planning team's effective interpretation of needs data should be spelled out so that it is possible to write a "job description" and objectives for any consultants.

Potential consultants may be identified and located through several agencies. These include regional Race Desegregation Assistance Centers, state education agencies (particularly those with Title IV projects), higher education agencies, professional educator's organizations, and school districts which are significantly advanced in the desegregation/integration process. Some school districts have taken advantage of a Title IV grant to employ a full time "resident consultant" with qualifications to help the district meet its desegregation-related objectives. And preparation teams should look at the credentials of potential consultants in much the same way a district would examine those of a potential employee.

An ideal consultant would have expertise not only in desegregation/integration theory and a variety of successful experiences related to the desegregation needs at hand, but would be an effective teacher and not upstage local inservice team members and presenters. It will be helpful to bring consultants in during preparation to brief them, have the advantage of their input, and arrange for equipment and other items required for their presentations. (See sample Consultant Services Checklist and Consultant Data Sheet, Appendices D and E. During this preparation, a consultant's activities can be coordinated with those of other consultants and local presenters.

In addition to arranging for and briefing the consultant, local coordinators arrange for appropriate facilities, sites, materials, evaluation forms and activities, audiovisual equipment and necessary personnel to operate it, publicity, notification, and facilitators for group discussions and reports. In most larger districts there are personnel whose routine duties include these activities. In some schools the principal and her/his staff make such arrangements. Sometimes these support activities can be performed by one staff member who would be compensated in time or with an honorarium.

It is important that local resource people be given as much responsibility as possible, going beyond the traditional and narrow base of using a select few to serve as facilitators. This is especially desirable when viewing the training process as collaborative and desegregation/integration as innovative. The underlying principle is to include those persons who will be most affected by the training who can share ideas and expertise to improve education. This includes teachers, administrators, all other staff, parents, and community members.

The literature suggests that no single category of trainer is equally successful with all kinds of training. A cadre of trainers with different but complementary styles provides participants with multiple modeling possibilities. A district and school should develop, secondary to the immediate training objectives, its own team of trainers for desegregation inservice. Indeed, some districts approach their primary needs by first securing training for such teams who in turn train other district personnel on a priority basis. Frequently, these teams are building-based, composed of a principal, teacher, counselor, parent, and perhaps a staff member between the school and district levels. This approach offers several advantages, including those of (1) the school's quickly becoming independent of outside consultants, (2) using the strengths of the collaborative concept, and (3) allowing the possibility of modeling both a variety of training styles and collegial cooperation between team members of differing races, genders, and job roles.

Many districts do not, however, begin preparation for desegregation with sufficient lead time to train trainers before providing desegregation-related inservice for the general school staff. But even in these cases, training of trainers should be going on at the same time as inservice for the general school staff. Prospective trainers can then work closely with consultants and receive instructions from them in on-the-job training. Given enough lead time, key personnel

may be trained through appropriate Title IV training institutes, conferences, higher education courses, or a combination of these inservice modes. Most school personnel, however, will most likely be trained in school- or district-based workshops. These, when properly planned, prepared, and implemented, have the advantage of focusing on district/school needs while providing a variety of activities to meet individual needs.

The grouping of participants for and within workshops depends upon a number of factors, including:

- objectives
- topic
- participant's job role, grade level of teaching, personality, sophistication, inservice experience, knowledge of the topic
- activities
- size of total group
- time available
- style of presenter
- availability of facilities and facilitators

Using a variety of activities (e.g., lecturette, discussion, feedback, and performance/participation) provides change of pace and helps maintain interest. Some activities may best be conducted in sub-groups, e.g., role play, discussion groups, brainstorming, and simulation games. It should be helpful for each of these small groups to share the results of their activity with the total group, with time for discussion.

There are advantages in varying membership of groups. For problem-solving, if the problem is schoolwide, it is probably a good idea for personnel of each school to meet as a group to identify, define, and discuss the problem. Subsequently, there should also be advantages in discussing the problem with personnel from other schools, especially if they are, or have been, grappling with the same problem. Some problems pertain to communications or relations between groups in a school or district. Such problems frequently involve different racial groups and job-role or category groups such as teachers and adminstrators or parents and teachers/administrators. In such cases, conflict prevention and/or resolution techniques may be appropriate. Facilitators may meet with one group and then the other (or others, if more than two groups are involved) to help them identify and define the specific issues of the problem(s) before bringing the groups together to try to resolve it. Often, the problems stem simply from faulty communication and minor misunderstandings. Even so, the facilitators involved need communication and conflict prevention/resolution skills lest the problem be made worse.

Effective desegregation/integration requires cooperation not only within the school but between the school, home, and community. Frequently, there are communication barriers present which obstruct cooperation, even within the school. It is not unusual for the people involved to have difficulty identifying, much less solving, the problem, especially if it is a long-standing one. A skilled outside consultant should be able to clarify a problem. In schools and districts where there is no tradition of serious and frank intergroup communication, the problem may not come to light until a larger task is confronted, such as implementing desegregation. Even though lack of communication and cooperation may have had negative effects on school atmosphere and quality of education long before desegregation, the "sand in the gears" does not get attention until the "machine is under

stress." If teachers, administrators, and parents and other community representatives are grouped together "cold" and/or without a skilled facilitator, participants are not likely to be receptive to information or training or to discuss sensitive issues of desegregation. Initial subgrouping by categories may be helpful in breaking barriers and building bridges for intergroup communication, not only during inservice but for day-to-day cooperation.

The availability of multicultural and other desegregation-related materials has increased significantly over the past decade and a half. These include materials for simulation games and other activities as well as the gamut of types of audiovisual products that school personnel can use in their own training. Helpful information about these materials is available from such resources as bibliographies (e.g., the useful annotated bibliographic series by Jones et al., 1974-1977) and the National Education Association toll-free hotline which provides descriptions of products for inservice education. Unfortunately, many materials containing racial and other biases still exist and are being produced. But even these, in the hands of a sensitive and skilled facilitator, can be effective training tools. Many commercial products are designed to "stand alone," but most require adaptation to local needs and conditions by the preparation team, consultant, or other presenters.

Prospective materials must be reviewed to determine whether they match program objectives and fit cohesively in the inservice education program. Some mechanics of the review process have been listed by Luke (1980):

- Preview all products, especially films, filmstrips, audiotapes, and videotapes. In these materials, the message remains locked up and out of sight until matched with the proper equipment for releasing it.

- Review enough materials to obtain a good idea of the overall product (not necessarily every component).

- Check to make certain all the components are present. If they are not, contact the distributor immediately.

- Carefully list all resource materials that accompany the products, and those that may be additionally required (either material or human, such as the group leader or facilitator).

All of the preparation team members need not be involved in materials selection. The processes of review, selection, and adaptation of materials are lengthy and it is difficult to estimate the amount of time necessary. But, to avoid a mismatch of materials and objectives, considerable time for selection should be arranged.

The larger time-frame decisions will probably have been made in the planning phase, but much preparation for workshop sessions is necessary in order to ensure the most effective use of time. (See Workshop Planning and Preparation Form, Appendix A.) Use of a checklist for materials and equipment required for each workshop session can avoid waste of time and contribute to effective training activities. (See Appendix E, Checklist of Workshop Materials and Equipment, for example.) Other time preparations include arranging for early dismissal or substitute teachers if the inservice is to be conducted during time ordinarily used for instruction.

Funding arrangements must also be made for substitute teacher salaries and any staff time (including clerical assistance) for which payment is necessary. Adequate preparation will involve purchase of supplies and materials, contracting for services (consultant, computer, printing, etc.), and any rental of equipment. (See sample budget, Appendix B.)

Physical facilities should afford (1) a comfortable, roomy, well-lighted setting, with flexible seating and (2) accommodations for all planned large and small group activities and full use of necessary equipment and materials. Audiovisual equipment and materials should be tried out in the prospective rooms to make sure they have enough space, good acoustics and lighting, and necessary electrical outlets, projection screens, chalkboards, etc.

Publicity includes communication of information to the targeted audience as well as press releases to news media. Both should be designed to build interest in the program. For the school district without a full-time communications specialist, a journalism or English teacher, a community volunteer, or anyone with skills in writing press releases and newsletters and in dealing with media can do the job. It may be worthwhile for the district to see to it that an appropriate staff member receives training in communications. Such skills are important to the schools not just in regard to inservice or desegregation, but for good community relations as well.

One of the many advantages of a continuing training program is that follow-up activities can be built into subsequent sessions in order to provide support and answer questions of participants as they implement new procedures and practice new skills. Follow-up should be done on an informal or semi-formal basis as well, as program staff solicit feedback and other input from participants between workshops. Preparation should be made for monitoring and ample opportunity for feedback in and out of formal sessions. One promising formal system of monitoring progress is CBAM by Hall, Loucks, et al. (1977, 1978), with their Levels of Concern and Levels of Usage interviews. It has been demonstrated in Rand studies (McLauglin and Marsh 1978) that effective support activities have strong, direct, and positive effects on program outcomes.

Before any training activities begin, the evaluation design should be completed, instruments printed, and participants pre-tested. Preparation should also be made for gathering, interpreting, and utilizing evaluation data as the program progresses.

IMPLEMENTATION/DELIVERY

The implementation component of the WIEDS Inservice Education Process Model deals with the actual conducting of the workshops. In general, the workshop activities meet inservice objectives by (1) creating or increasing awareness that innovation is needed and that something can be done to improve education in the school and district, (2) increasing knowledge of what can be done, and (3) developing or increasing skills necessary to do it.

The traditional, relatively low-cost practice of providing common inservice experiences to an audience of only teachers leaves much to be desired. To improve training in desegregated schools, total staffs as well as parents and community representatives must be involved. This presents the problems of (1) individualizing the activities so that a diversity of roles, experiences, needs, and concerns are dealt with and (2) doing this with limited time and funds. As Hall and Loucks (September, 1978) have suggested, using small homogeneous groups, providing options within a training session, and providing school-based programs have potential for solving these problems.

Many of the concerns about strategy for effective implementation will have been dealt with during planning and preparation. During implementation there will likely be adjustments of strategy in approaches, timing, activities, and grouping. These adjustments depend upon monitoring and formative evaluation. An inservice program for an innovation such as desegregation must be dynamic and adaptable to changing situations and priorities. This frequently puts heavy

demands upon program staff and consultants. Experienced consultants will know this, and project staff should be prepared for it. The flexibility and work required by effective inservice, calls for commitment beyond mere involvement.

Follow-up activities should be discussed during implementation, either near the end of the workshop or program or whenever the subject naturally arises during the activities. Whether formal or informal, follow-up activities should provide whatever support is necessary to groups or individuals in implementing an innovation. Such follow-up is necessary whether the innovation is curriculum content, a process (e.g., multicultural education), or a network of processes such as those to promote integration (e.g., multicultural education, improved race relations, and parental involvement). These follow-up activities are essential for adoption of the innovation and will frequently be most effective if begun during implementation and continued as a part of the application component. In follow-up, as in all implementation, specific actions, staff responsibilities, and times should be identified.

APPLICATION/ADOPTION

Implementation is a culmination of sorts of a great deal of planning and preparation, but it is just the beginning of application, sometimes called adoption. Application, the stage when the innovation is put into use to benefit students and staff, is a key part of the payoff from the investment of planning, preparation, and resources.

In examining issues involved in the difficulty of applying an innovation, several researchers have analyzed the application process. Hall and Loucks (Summer, 1977) examined a cycle of seven levels of use (LoU) beyond "non-use" of the innovation. This is shown in Figure 4.

LEVELS OF USE OF THE INNOVATION

Levels of Use		Definition of Use
0	Nonuse	State in which the user has little or no knowledge of the innovation, no involvement with the innovation, and is doing nothing toward becoming involved.
	Decision Point A	Takes action to learn more detailed information about the innovation.
I	Orientation	State in which the user has recently acquired or is acquiring information about the innovation and/or has recently explored or is exploring its value orientation and its demands upon user and user system.
	Decision Point B	Makes a decision to use the innovation by establishing a time to begin.
II	Preparation	State in which the user is preparing for first use of the innovation.
	Decision Point C	Changes, if any, and use are dominated by user needs.
III	Mechanical Use	State in which the user focuses most effort on the short-term, day-to-day use of the innovation with little time for reflection. Changes in use are made more to meet user needs than client needs. The user is primarily engaged in a stepwise attempt to master the tasks required to use the innovation, often resulting in disjointed and superficial use.
	Decision Point D-1	A routine pattern of use is established.
IVA	Routine	Use of the innovation is stabilized. Few, if any, changes are being made in ongoing use. Little preparation or thought is being given to improving innovation use or its consequences.
	Decision Point D-2	Changes use of the innovation based on formal or informal evaluation in order to increase client outcomes.

Figure 4 - (continued next page)

From Gene E. Hall and Susan F. Loucks. "A Developmental Model for Determing Whether the Treatment Is Actually Implemented," American Educational Research Journal, Vol. 14, Summer 1977, pp. 263-276.

Levels of Use	Definition of Use
IVB Refinement	State in which the user varies the use of the innovation to increase the impact on clients within the immediate sphere of influence. Variations are based on knowledge of both short- and long-term consequences for clients.
Decision Point E	Initiates changes in use of innovation based on input of and in coordination with what colleagues are doing.
V Integration	State in which the user is combining own efforts to use the innovation with related activities of colleagues to achieve a collective impact on clients within their common sphere of influence.
Decision Point F	Begins exploring alternatives to or major modifications of the innovation presently in use.
VI Renewal	State in which the user reevaluates the quality of use of the innovation, seeks major modifications of or alternatives to present innovation to achieve increased impact on clients, examines new developments in the field, and explores new goals for self and the system.

Figure 4

In LoU, Hall and Loucks are interested not only in evaluation and interpretation issues, the extent to which an innovation is actually in use and how it is being used, but also staff concerns which impede application of an innovation. With each level of use, there is a "decision point" at which the potential user's concerns may dictate an end to the process. It is important, therefore, to attend to these concerns in the implementation/adoption phase of innovation. The following is a summary of key considerations suggested by Hall and Loucks' research (September, 1978):

- It is all right to have personal concerns. Personal concerns are a very real part of the process.

- Pressure to attend to the teachers' concerns as well as to the innovation's technology.

- Within any group there is a variety of concerns. As with any group, a group of teachers are seldom at the same place at the same time.

- Teachers' concerns may not be the same as those of the staff developers. Staff developers probably hold their positions because they have school concerns. Early resolution of teacher concerns will help them develop school concerns.

- Do not expect change to be accomplished overnight. Because change is a process entailing developmental growth and learning, it will take time. One-shot workshops will not implement a program; long-term follow-up is necessary.

Even though inservice activities in the implementation stage may produce an awareness of a need to change and demonstrate how change is possible, there may be concerns among the teachers and staff which impede application. Three sources of resistance may be present in any school, but perhaps especially in a newly desegregatred district. These include: (1) a vested interest in the status quo, (2) a concern that

the costs of innovation may outweigh the advantages, and (3) the fear of failure among a staff which undertakes to improve student achievement. Examples of all three forms of resistance were encountered in Wilbur Brookover and his colleagues' studies in desegregated urban schools (1978 and 1979).

Interests in maintaining the status quo as to separation of races and negative stereotypes of minority students, parents, staff, and others can weigh heavily against smooth and effective desegregation and improvement of education. Current practices or norms are likely to represent a vested interest on the part of a school's informal leaders. These leaders' norms as to "proper behavior" may lead to or perpetuate tracking and other devices for homogeneous grouping to segregate minority and/or lower socio-economic groups within a school or classroom. Widespread acceptance of integration, however, causes these informal leaders to change values or lose their roles as leaders.

Even staff members without a vested interest in the status quo may feel its effects in terms of perceived high psychological costs of innovation compared to anticipated rewards. This second form of resistance to innovation is reflected in staff members who have concerns about being perceivd as "trying too hard." Teachers and principals who significantly improve student achievement in their classrooms and schools while their peers do not may feel pressure from their colleagues who believe that they suffer from the comparison. This kind of peer pressure evidently operates frequently at the staff as well as the student level.

There are potential remedies for this peer pressure, as well as for the third source of resistance, fear of failure. A staff that has experienced failure in trying to raise student achievement may have decided that the situation is hopeless because of a variety of factors. Frequently, these staff members relate a list of reasons why nothing can be done to raise student achievement. These reasons generally

blame the students, the parents, and the "system." This is not to say that there are not impediments over which a teacher, principal, superintendent, or other staff member may have little or no influence. It is to say that humans sometimes rationalize to protect themselves and that this evidently includes school/district staff members who do not want to take personal responsibility for low achievement (Brookover, 1978, 1979). Many staffs have tried methods which have worked with some students (perhaps only a relative few with more motivation) and failed with other students. If the staff tries again, they risk failure again. Innovation is more likely to occur if there are reductions in the staff's perceptions of the costs of (1) giving up the security and comfort of rationalizations for failure and (2) suffering from peer pressure for not failing while colleagues do.

To help reduce these concerns, inservice implementation must make school staffs aware of what many once low-achieving schools have done to raise achievement significantly. This reinforces the concept that something can be done. But as Bruce Joyce and Beverly Showers (1980) have found, awareness and even acquisition of concepts or organized knowledge are simply not sufficient. In over two hundred studies analyzed by Joyce and Showers, there is remarkable consistency in findings--that staff members learn knowledge and concepts and can generally demonstrate new skills and strategies if provided opportunities for modeling, practice, feedback, and coaching. It appears that if any of the opportunities (modeling, practice, feedback, coaching) are omitted, the impact of the training will be diminished because fewer people will progress to the application/adoption level; the only level that has significant meaning for school improvement.

The Rand Change Agent Study (Berman and McLaughlin, 1977) indicates that inservice support activities improve program implementation, promote student gains, and enhance the continuation of program methods and

materials. For example, classroom coaching from resource personnel can provide feedback that staffs need to make modifications and feel comfortable with an innovation.

In essence, research findings emphasize the importance of follow-up assessment and support activities for the adoption of innovative awareness, knowledge, and skills, and that these follow-up activities are directly relevant to determining the effects inservice experiences have on job performance and student achievement.

EVALUATION

As used in this model, evaluation is the systematic process of identifying sources of, and collecting, analyzing, and using information about, inservice education. Why evaluate inservice education anyway? There are general, valid reasons, including grant requirements and accountability of inservice education staff, but this section will concentrate on the questions of "How well has the training worked?" and "How can we improve it next time?" Much of the evaluation consists of asking the right questions. A needs assessment, for example, begins by asking: "What are our needs?" "Which are most important?" and "How can we find out?" Figure 5 contains a model and definitions explaining evaluation elements with related questions and their relationship to each other.

Formative evaluation is continual throughout the training program. Summative evaluation occurs at the end of an inservice activity, and describes its immediate results. Summative evaluation answers such questions as: What was the impact? How extensive was it? Should we do the same thing again in the same way?

Needs assessing has already been discussed in the planning component. Further evaluation planning

EVALUATION MODEL AND DEFINITIONS

Needs Assessment is the process of determining what things are needed to serve a worthy purpose. It identifies information requisite and useful for serving that purpose; assesses the extent that the identified needs are met or unmet; rates the importance of these needs; and aids in applying the findings to formulate goals and objectives, choose procedures, and assess progress.(1)

Evaluation Planning decides on and sets forth steps of the process which decides what information is required; how, when, from whom the information will be secured; and how the data will be analyzed and reported.

Process Evaluation (also called implementation or monitoring evaluation) attempts to answer the questions: "What activities/events (planned or unplanned) occurred during the program that could have an impact on the intended outcomes?"(2) and "Did the activities go as planned?"

Progress Evaluation attempts to answer the questions: "How well and to what extent are the IE program's elements meeting their objectives?"

Product Evaluation (sometimes called outcome, impact, goal attainment evaluation) is an attempt to answer the question: "What were the outcomes (intended or unintended) that can be attributed to the program's activities/events?"(2)

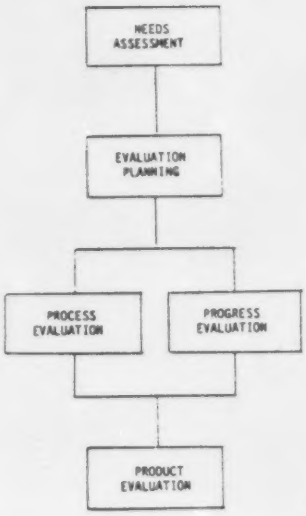

Figure 5

Model adapted from a U. S. Office of Education Evaluation Workshop (April 1974).
(1) Definition adapted from Stufflebeam (1977).
(2) Definitions adapted from Evaluation Training Consortium Workshop (March 1980).

begins with questions based on information from the needs assessment and proceeds step-by-step with additional questions as shown in the Evaluation Plan Outline (Figure 6).

Several of the evaluation questions and steps relate to measurement procedures, e.g., what is to be done, who is to do it, and when and how it will be done. Three general areas of criteria for quality measurement procedures--(1) practicality, (2) ethicality, and (3) credibility--and their elements are briefly considered in Figure 7 showing Measurement Procedures Criteria.

Evaluation instruments may be secured through commercial sources or developed locally by school or district personnel, perhaps with assistance from a consultant. There are advantages and disadvantages with instruments from either source. Standardized commercial tests are usually simple to score and interpret, and reliability and validity information is generally available for them; they may not, however, measure exactly what needs to be measured. Locally prepared instruments may be designed to meet the measurement need at hand but can be difficult to validate.

As with other components of inservice education, resources for evaluation are usually limited, so a variety of measurement procedures should be considered. Some procedures which do not require sophisticated or expensive instrumentation may serve the purpose, or at least, some of the purposes.* In

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*Further information on instrumentation and data sources, as well as on other aspects of evaluation, can be found in S. Anderson et al., Encyclopedia of Educational Evaluation (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1975); and Daniel L. Stufflebeam et al., Educational Evaluation and Decision Making (Itasca, Ill.: F. E. Peacock, Inc., 1971). The Evaluation Training Consortium's Instrument Catalog (Kalamazoo: Western Michigan University, 1980) may also be useful.

EVALUATION PLAN OUTLINE
AFTER NEEDS ASSESSMENT

	QUESTION	ACTION
1	What are the most important needs?	Setting of objectives based on goals and priorities
2	What information is needed to determine whether objectives are met (product evaluation) or being met (progress evaluation) and how efficiently (process evaluation)?	Determining information requirements
3	Where and/or from whom can this information be secured?	Identifying information sources
4	How and/or with what can we gather the information and measure effects?	Designing and/or selecting instruments
5	When will the information be gathered, processed, analyzed, and reported?	Scheduling time frame
6	What do the data Mean?	Processing and analyzing data
7	Who needs to know?	Reporting results and findings

Figure 6

MEASUREMENT PROCEDURES CRITERIA

I. PRACTICALITY

A. Time

How much time will be required to carry out the measurement procedure?

Will instruments need to be developed?

Will staff need to be recruited and/or trained?
How much time will be required to collect, aggregate, code, analyze, and store the data?

B. Costs

How much will it cost to develop the instrument?

How much will it cost to train staff and administer the instrument?

What scoring mechanism will be used? Hand or machine?

C. Personnel and Politics

Who will implement the measurement procedure? Will it inconvenience them to do so?

Who will be responsible for developing the instrument?

Are there individuals or groups that might be opposed to this procedure?

What possible positive or negative effects will the measurement procedure have on the respondents? the program? the staff?

II. ETHICS

A. Human Rights

Does the measurement procedure violate any personal rights of privacy, equal protection, etc.?

B. Legality

Does the measurement procedure violate any law or regulation?

C. Confidentiality/Integrity

Will the information collected by the measurement procedure be kept as confidential and anonymous as necessary to protect human rights?

Figure 7 - (continued on next page)

Adapted from Evaluation Training Consortium (March 1980).

III. CREDIBILITY

A. Validity

Is what the procedure will measure logically related to the dimensions and evaluation questions being addressed by that measurement procedure?

Is there reason to believe that differences reflected by the data collected will reflect real differences in the awareness, knowledge, or skills about which information is sought?

B. Reliability

How accurate is the measurement?

Will the procedure be adversely affected by any peculiar characteristics of a particular measurement setting?

Can the measurement procedure be implemented consistently from instance to instance?

Can respondents make required judgments or categorizations accurately?

C. Objectivity

Will respondents make required judgments or categorizations honestly?

Will respondents perceive a premium for responding in a particular way?

D. Reactivity

Will the measuring instrument 'teach' certain responses?

Will observers or recorders adversely affect what is to be measured?

Will particular demands of the measurement procedure adversely affect the object of measurement?

E. Bias

Do respondents 'self-select'?

Will samples be representative?

Will raw data finally available for analysis be representative of only one group or point of view?

Figure 7

addition to quantitative methods, measurement procedures should also include qualitative methods to broaden understanding of events and "cast a wider net," which may secure unanticipated but important data. Figure 8, "Examples of Measurement Procedures," includes examples of methods of how different measurements work to help secure various types of information.

Post-training assessment information gathered through various procedures can be used to measure program effectiveness and plan future activities. Post-assessment data should be not only objective, but diagnostic as well, to help increase the participants' benefits from the training. Much of this benefit depends on feedback to the participant. Two-way feedback is important to training. Responses from participants during delivery and application of the training is, of course, a primary source of evaluation data. Feedback of evaluation findings to participants, though it is less often practiced, can be quite important for reinforcement purposes. Post-assessment measures which detect positive development of participants, even when many weaknesses are also shown, can also provide valuable reinforcement (Harris, 1980).

A variety of measurement procedures discussed above may be necessary to assess impact. Several methods will probably be necessary to determine the expected and unexpected outcomes of changes in: (1) individuals' awareness, knowledge, and skills; (2) curricula; (3) organizations, systems, and institutions; and (4) adoption levels and usage.

It is frequently easier to measure impact on staff, and even parents, than upon students. In child-change inservice models, participants use new awareness, knowledge, and skills in the schools and, as a result, students' achievement increases. And if planning (especially needs assessing), preparation, implementation/delivery, and application/adoption have been effective, it appears that this is likely to

EXAMPLES OF MEASUREMENT PROCEDURES

TYPE OF INFORMATION REQUIRED	KIND OF MEASUREMENT PROCEDURE	HOW IT WORKS
Behaviors, actions, or events	1. Observe and record behaviors of others (Qualitative)	Observer records the behaviors of person(s) in a particular setting or time interval; behaviors are categorized or counted. Setting may be "natural" or simulated. Judgments of quality are not made.
	Examples: - Observe trainees during inservice in simulations, exercises, etc. - Trainers observe each other in inservice training. - Analyze video-tape of team problem-solving session.	
	2. Record own behaviors (Qualitative)	Respondent maintains a record of events or behaviors involving self, indicating nature of and/or time spent in activities as they transpire.
	Examples: - Trainees keep logs during training. - Trainees keep records of own performance in conducting inservice.	
	3. Conduct a survey (Quantitative)	Respondent records or categorizes events, circumstances, environmental variables, etc., as they apply to self or others. Judgments are not made.
	Examples: - Interview representatives of target audience of inservice training before training. - Follow-up questionnaire administered to inservice trainees after inservice training. - Interview selected participants after training programs. - Administer questionnaires to non-participants. - Survey district personnel (Teachers, school board, and central office staff).	
What person(s) think, know or feel	4. Administer objective tests (Quantitative)	Respondent selects or generates responses to given questions intended to assess knowledge, understanding, cognitive variables. Usually self-administered.
	Examples: - Knowledge tests administered to samples of district personnel. - Objective test administered at end of inservice workshop (or pre-post).	
	5. Collect self-ratings (Qualitative)	Respondent records or categorizes own opinions, attitudes, values or judgments about self.
	Examples: - Trainees rate their knowledge and skill acquisition during, and/or right after inservice training. - Trainers rate own training sessions.	
	6. Collect ratings/judgments about others (Qualitative & Quantitative)	Respondent records or categorizes judgments about quality or characteristics of some event or person. NOTE: may be reflective or based on immediate observed experience
	Examples: - Participants rate the training during the training sessions. - Trainers rate the performance of those attending the training. - Evaluator rates effectiveness of trainers of inservice workshops. - Trainees rate the effectiveness of inservice training immediately after training.	

Figure 8 (continued next page)

EXAMPLES OF MEASUREMENT PROCEDURES (cont'd)

TYPE OF INFORMATION REQUIRED	KIND OF MEASUREMENT PROCEDURE	HOW IT WORKS
	7. Analyze products: a. a work sample b. a product derived from a simulation (Quantitative)	Respondent analyzes some document or product in order to determine the extent to which it contains certain elements or meets certain criteria.
	Examples: - Analyze work samples produced by participants at inservice workshops. - Analyze inservice training design(s).	
Characteristics of tangible objects	8. Analyze existing records or archives (Quantitative)	Usage reports, receipts, etc., are analyzed, counted, documented, or aggregated.
	Examples: - Analyze attendance records of inservice training. - Analyze previous records of special service staff meeting.	
	9. Produce an inventory (Quantitative)	Respondent counts, measures, or categorizes certain tangible objects and records results.
	Examples: - Make an inventory of materials used in inservice training programs. - Inventory program materials deposited in wastebaskets.	

Figure 8

Adapted in Evaluation Training Consortium workshop (March 1980).

happen. A problem arises, as Robert Brinkerhoff has said (April, 1981), in trying to make "a valid inference that a given increment of pupil change in performance is due to an increment of inservice training . . . ." Causes for this difficulty stem from the facts that all "measures of pupil variables are more or less imperfect" and there are a myriad of interacting factors affecting teacher and student behavior in the classroom. Brinkerhoff adds, however, that analysis of inservice in reference to a child-change model "is a powerful tool for arriving at, and judging, sound inservice design," i.e., staff increases awareness, knowledge, and skills; staff uses these tools; and child-change occurs in desired ways (see also Hawley et al., April 1981).

Because of the many variables likely to be involved in inservice training, a systems model with a multivariate approach to determining relationships between variables may be desirable. A basic schema for the Context, Input, Process and Product (CIPP) Model, pioneered by Daniel Stufflebeam (1977), is shown in Figure 9.

BASIC SYSTEMS MODEL OF EVALUATION

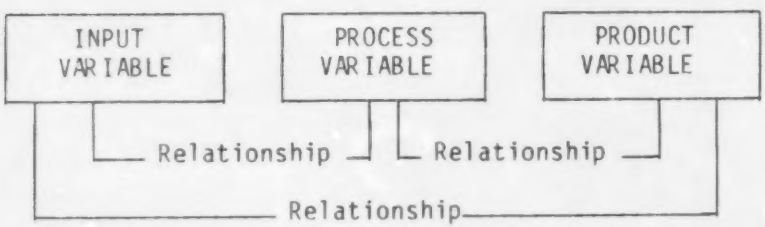

Figure 9

Questions with the CIPP model are designed to determine whether the outcome was greater or less when certain processes were in abundant use, limited, or

lacking. Findings provide a basis for increasing, maintaining, or eliminating the selected process.

Inservice program evaluation is in its infancy, but there are many tools available which can be adopted and adapted by local practitioners while they develop their own approaches. whatever approaches are used, "they should be rigorous, objective, systematic, and open-ended" (Harris, 1980).

Formats, content, and timing of evaluation reports depend generally upon their audience and purposes. An oral report may be more appropriate for a consultant or observer to present to project staff for immediate feedback. This can produce useful exchanges of views which may lead to added dimensions for findings, conclusions, and recommendations which can be presented more formally in the written report.

A written report might contain the following elements:

I. Executive Summary.
   Stressing the objectives, problems, findings, and recommendations (may be separate from the report itself, or take the place of the Abstract).

II. Abstract.
   One-page digest of the report.

III. Introduction.
   Purpose of the report.
   Scope and limitations.

IV. Description of the program evaluated.

V. Statement of objectives and/or questions addressed by the evaluation.

VI. Description of evaluation design, procedures, methods, and instruments.

VII. Discussion of findings.

VIII. Conclusions.
Sufficient data base for support.

IX. Recommendations.
Based on findings and conclusions.

X. Appendices.
May include instruments and charts and tables of technical data.

The introductory "purpose of the report" should explain the reasons for evaluating the program. "Hidden agendas" should be avoided; the evaluation is to provide information about the effectiveness of the program, not the participants (Griffin, 1978). The amount of detail depends upon the audience. Some audiences may be interested in some portions of the report, others in another. An appropriately detailed table of contents should be included to assist the reader in locating portions of particular interest. Essentially the same information may be reported to different audiences at different levels of specificity and levels of technical language. Certainly, a report must be comprehensible to its audiences, e.g., funding agency, school board, administrators, teachers, other staff, parents, and the community at large. Further, a press release about the inservice program and its outcomes should be sent to local news media. At least as much information as goes to the media should be included in the newsletters or "special bulletins" to parents and interested community organizations, especially those whose support for and involvement in desegregation are most important.

CONCLUSION

The outcomes of desegregation can be the same as the goals of inservice education in terms of broadening people's understanding, facilitating personal growth, and providing more effective education. But for the potential of desegregation to be realized, inservice training is necessary.

Inservice education cannot solve all desegregation-related problems any more than it can solve all other education-related problems. But effective inservice programs for school personnel, parents, and community representatives are essential to help: (1) prevent negative school experiences which reinforce stereotypes and prejudices, (2) provide school atmospheres which encourage learning and multicultural friendships and understanding, (3) involve parents cooperatively in their children's education, and (4) teach children to be culturally literate, preparing them for a fuller, more productive life in a multicultural society.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FURTHER READING

Findings from the WIEDS study suggest needs for research in several significant areas. These include the following: (1) the relationship between bilingual education and integration, (2) the dynamics of multiracial integration, (3) rural and small school integration, and (4) multicultural and integration aspects involved in the education of migrant children. There are, nevertheless, many excellent resources available as guides for desegregation, multicultural education, and inservice training for most schools. Some of these resources are indicated below, grouped in those three categories.

DESEGREGATION AND INTEGRATION

Community Relations Service (of the) U.S. Dept. of Justice, and National Center for Quality Integrated Education. Desegregation Without Turmoil: The Role of the Multi-Racial Community Coalition in Preparing for Smooth Transition. New York, N.Y.: The National Conference of Christians and Jews, 1976. 45 pp.

Tells how citizen coalitions organized and led their communities through peaceful desegregation processes. Includes a discussion of coalition building, community activities, and local leadership roles, and a list of selected resources for assistance, many of which are still available.

Forehand, Garlie A.; and Marjorie Ragosta. A Handbook for Integrated Schooling. Princeton, N. J.: Educational Testing Service, 1976. 88 pp.

This useful handbook is based on findings by these two authors and D. Rock, Final Report: Conditions and Processes of Effective School

Desegregation (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1976), which resulted from research in nearly 200 desegregated schools. Two premises for the Handbook grew out of the study--that schooling should and will be desegregated and that "there are positive actions that can be taken to maximize the educational benefits" of desegregated schooling. Forehand and Ragosta's guidelines can help schools be more successful in achieving integration; "successful" meaning having "positive benefits for children--benefits to their learning, their attitudes, and their effectiveness as individuals and citizens."

Foster, Gordon. "Desegregating Urban Schools: A Review of Techniques," in Harvard Educational Review, Vol. 43, No. 1, February 1973, 10 pp.

A useful critique of basic student assignment techniques.

Greenberg, Jack; Thomas F. Pettigrew; Susan Greenblatt; Walter McCann; and David Bennett. Schools and the Courts, Vol. I, Desegregation. Eugene, Oregon: ERIC Clearinghouse on Educational Management, 1979. 120 pp.

In depth analyses of the federal courts' role in school desegregation, from four viewpoints: a plaintiff's, by Greenberg who helped argue Brown v. Board of Education before the U.S. Supreme Court; Pettigrew as an expert witness; Greenblatt and McCann as educators looking at Boston; and a defendant, Deputy Superintendent Bennett of Milwaukee.

Hawley, Willis D., et al. Assessment of Current Knowledge About the Effectiveness of School Desegregation Strategies. Volume I: Strategies for Effective Desegregation: A Synthesis of Findings. Nashville, Tennessee: Center for Education and Human Development Policy, Institute for Public Policy Studies, April 1981. 186 pp.

From several sources, this report synthesizes information on strategies which seem to be helpful in attaining one or more goals of desegregation. These strategies are discussed under the headings of pupil assignment plans, housing desegregation, community preparation and involvement, changes within schools, and inservice training.

Henderson, Ronald. "Desegregation to Integration: From a Number's Game to Quality Education," a paper presented to "Urban Education National Conference: From Desegregated Schools to Integrated Education," Milwaukee, Wisconsin, July 1979. 19 pp. Available from CEMREL, Inc., St. Louis, Missouri.

Illustrates how available desegregation research and experience can be useful in preparing for desegregation and implementing programmatic interventions to enhance integration.

Hughes, Larry W., et al. Desegregating America's Schools. New York, N.Y.: Longman, 1980. 172 pp.

Although too brief to cover all facets in depth (there is one page on inservice), this can serve as a handbook for developing a rudimentary desegregation plan. It provides historical perspective and information about techniques, but the book is most helpful for its consideration of community support, development of transportation routes, estimation of costs, anticipation of

"second generation" problems and other issues often overlooked.

King, A. L. "The Impact of Desegregation and the Need for Inservice Education," in David L. Williams, Jr., ed. Research to Improve Family and School Life. Southwest Educational Development Laboratory Monograph Series. Austin, Texas: SWEDL, 1981. pp 1-26.

Reports on research which identified effects of desegregation and strategies to minimize its burdens and maximize its benefits.

National Institute of Education. School Desegregation in Metropolitan Areas: Choices and Prospects. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1977. 166 pp.

Report on a two-day national conference March 1977. Provides discussions of urban and suburban desegregation issues, including not only demographic and economic factors such as housing, busing, and jobs, but also (some) social and instructional matters. The tenor is favorable to metropolitan desegregation, and includes educators experienced and knowledgeable in this approach, for example, Roland Jones (Charlotte-Mecklenberg, North Carolina), E. Lutrell Bing (Hillsborough County, Florida).

Orfield, Gary. Must We Bus?: Segregated Schools and National Policy. Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution, 1978. 470 pp.

A well-researched and readable treatise on the question in the title. Orfield makes it clear that desegregation has many facets-legal, political, social, moral, economic, and emotional, as well as educational. He considers these facets while focusing on the question of whether desegregation negatively affects the educational

achievement of White students. Citing a number of research studies, Orfield concludes that it does not. The busing controversy is put in perspective: about half of the nation's public school students ride school buses, fewer than 5 percent for desegregation; usually only 1 to 3 percent of a desegregated district's budget is for busing; it is three times safer than walking to school; and there is no demonstrable negative educational effect. Further, Orfield contends, though it is not ideal, busing is the "only solution available" until and unless residential areas are desegregated.

St. John, Nancy H. School Desegregation: Outcomes for Children. New York, N.Y.: John Wiley & Sons, 1975. 236 pp.

This is St. John's report on her review of over 120 studies concerned with academic, emotional, and social outcomes for pupils in desegregated schools. Because of the narrow range and/or methodological inadequacies of some studies, St. John concludes that "in a sense the evidence is not all in; as implemented to date, desegregation has not rapidly closed the black-white gap in academic achievement, though it has rarely lowered and sometimes raised the scores of black children." White achievement "has been unaffected in schools that remained majority white but significntly lower in majority black schools." There is evidence that in the long-run, desegregation may encourage the aspiration and self-esteem of Black youth. The immediate effect of desegregation on interracial attitudes "is sometimes positive but often negative . . . white racism is frequently aggravated by mixed schooling." Especially valuable is an identification of conditions which must exist if desegregation is to contribute to the development of children, e.g., the "selection and training of school staff . . . appears all-important."

School Desegregation: The Continuing Challenge, Reprint Series No. 11. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Educational Review, 1976. 121 pp.

This is made up mostly of a critique of the "white flight" thesis of James S. Coleman. Featured are a reprinted article and correspondence from the Harvard Educational Review: Thomas F. Pettigrew and Robert L. Green, "School Desegregation in Large Cities" (Vol. 46, No. 1, February 1976, pp. 1-53), and an ensuing exchange between those authors and James Coleman (Vol. 46, No. 2, May 1976, pp. 217-233). Pettigrew and Green criticize the research most frequently used by opponents of busing to support their argument and discuss the manner in which media reported (and did not report) the complicated debate. Coleman defends his research and thesis.

U.S. Commission on Civil Rights. Fulfilling the Letter and Spirit of the Law: Desegregation of the Nation's Public Schools. No. 005-000-00141-2. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Govt. Printing Office, August 1976. 315 pp.

The Commission assesses the progress of school desegregation in various school districts in the U.S. and identifies factors that contribute to an effective desegregaton program. The Commission finds that there "is one conclusion that stands out above all others: desegregation works." Nevertheless, there are still problems, especially in large school districts. The Commission identifies "musts" to be attended to in order to build upon the progress already made in desegregation.

MULTICULTURAL EDUCATION

Banks, James A., ed. Education in the 80's: Multiethnic Education. Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1981. 190 pp.

Leaders in multicultural education discuss key issues in their field, including the nature of multicultural education, the societal curriculum, interactions in culturally pluralistic classrooms, the school culture and cultures of minority students, cognitive styles, language diversity, cross-cultural counseling, testing and assessment, curriculum, multiethnic education in monocultural schools, the community's role, equity, and teacher preparation and role. Also included are "action agenda" and helpful references.

Banks, James A., ed. Teaching Ethnic Studies: Concepts and Strategies. 43rd Yearbook. Washington, D.C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1973. 297 pp.

Specialists on various ethnic groups, on women in history, on cultural pluralism, and on social justice discuss significant issues related to teaching ethnic studies. Includes an article on "Teaching the Experience of White Ethnic Groups."

Banks, James A. Teaching Strategies for Ethnic Studies. 2nd edition. Boston: Allyn & Bacon, 1979. 502 pp.

Excellent tool for beginning multicultural education in the U.S. Includes chapters on Afro, Asian, Cuban, European, Mexican, Native American, Native Hawaiian, and Puerto Rican. Banks gives content, concepts, and learning activities for primary, intermediate, and upper levels, as well as an annotated bibliography of materials and resources for each group. For a general study

guide, there are: (1) a "Chronology of Key Events" for "Ethnic Groups in American History"; (2) a list of selected films and filmstrips on groups; (3) a selected list of ethnic periodicals, with addresses; and (4) criteria for evaluating the treatment of minority groups and females in curricular materials.

Banks, James A.; Carlos E. Cortés; Geneva Gay; Richardo L. Garcia; and Anne S. Ochoa. Curriculum Guidelines for Multiethnic Education. Arlington, Virginia: National Council for the Social Studies, 1976.

Useful principles and strategies for integrating the curriculum, K-12. By specialists who are among the most knowledgeable in multicultural education.

Baptiste, H. Prentice, Jr.; and Mira Lanier Baptiste. Developing the Multicultural Process in Classroom Instruction: Competencies for Teachers. Washington, D.C.: University Press of America, 1979. 245 pp.

Discusses acquisition of skills and strategies needed for making curriculum and instruction multicultural. Includes competencies, rationales, instructional objectives and activities, and assessment procedures. Useful format for inservice training.

Cortés, Carlos E.; Fay Metcalf; and Sharryl Hawke. Understanding You and Them: Tips for Teaching About Ethnicity. Boulder, Colorado: ERIC Clearinghouse for Social Studies/Social Science Education, 1976. 61 pp.

Useful for tips on integrating multicultural materials, concepts, and activities into the classroom. Suggests activities and how to identify and select appropriate materials. Includes

instruments to evaluate cognitive and effective outcomes of ethnic studies. Cortes' essay, "Ethnicity in the Curriculum" is helpful in dealing with key issues.

Cortés, Carlos E. "The Societal Curriculum and the School Curriculum: Allies or Antagonists?" Educational Leadership, April 1979. pp. 475-479.

Students learn from the societal curriculum as well as that of the school. Cortes defines societal curriculum as "that massive, ongoing, informal curriculum of family peer groups, neighborhoods, mass media, and other socializing forces that 'educate' us throughout our lives," and persuasively advocates that educators and students need to be made aware of and literate in it.

Garcia, Ricardo L. Fostering a Pluralistic Society Through Multi-Ethnic Education. Fastback No. 107. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1978. 49 pp.

This brief work is useful as an introduction to multicultural education, clearly delineating basic concepts and issues. Limits treatment of "educational exclusion" to Blacks and Chicanos. Briefly analyzes three approaches to multicultural curriculum: (1) human rights, (2) intergroup relations and (3) ethnic studies.

_____. Learning in Two Languages. Fastback No. 84. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1976.

Exploratory treatment of the importance of bilingual education, discusses implications and concepts.

Iowa State Department of Public Instruction. Multicultural, Non-sexist Curriculum Guidelines for Iowa Schools. Des Moines: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, 1975. 12 pp.

_____. Guide to Implementing Multicultural Nonsexist Curriculum Programs in Iowa Schools. Des Moines: Iowa State Department of Public Instruction, July 1976. 65 pp.

More than 20 states have passed legislation, provided guidelines, or otherwise made policy statements promoting multicultural education. These two publications give detailed guidance to the implementation of policies set forth in Iowa law requiring that the curriculum in the State's schools (K-12) reflect the diversity found in the state and the nation. Together, these booklets are an example of what can be done at the state level to give school boards, administrators, teachers, and community leaders a step by step approach to designing and implementing a quality multicultural, nonsexist education program in their local schools. Discusses roles and provides model statements and procedures and an incisive self-evaluation.

King, Edith W. Teaching Ethnic Awareness: Methods and Materials for the Elementary School. Santa Monica, Calif.: Goodyear, 1980. 197 pp.

This is a balanced blend of theory, proven methods and activities, and multicultural resources; adaptable to secondary level.

Klassen, Frank H.; and Donna M. Gollnick, eds. Pluralism and the American Teacher: Issues and Case Studies. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1977. 252 pp.

This collection of papers by specialists in the field discusses multicultural aspects of preservice and inservice education.

Rodriguez, Fred; Ed Meyer; and Karen S. Erb. Mainstreaming Multicultural Education Into Special Education: Guidelines for Special Education Teacher Trainers. Lawrence, Kans.: University of Kansas, 1980. 68 pp.

This excellent, brief work is one of the few which offers guidelines for mainstreaming multicultural education into special education. It is more than that, however, as its rationale, process, and workshop model are readily transferable to "mainstream" multicultural education.

Saville-Troike, Muriel. A Guide to Culture in the Classroom. Rosslyn, Va.: National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education, 1978. 67 pp.

Useful introduction to understanding culture of minority students. Provides perspective on nature and goals of bilingual education.

Sutman, Francis X.; Eleanor L. Sandstrom; and Francis Shoemaker. Educating Personnel for Bilingual Settings: Present and Future. Washington, D.C.: American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, 1979. 92 pp. (ED 165-961)

This monograph on bilingual/multicultural education is based on the premise that there is a need to educate and prepare school personnel to work and teach in a culturally pluralistic society. Focus on such issues as (1) working models of

bilingual education, (2) curriculum design and content, (3) appropriate teaching methods and strategies, and (4) evaluating teacher performance.

Valverde, Leonard. "Strategies for the Advancement of Cultural Pluralism." Phi Delta Kappan, October 1978. pp. 107-110.

Offers answers to the questions: (1) What effect is cultural pluralism having on the education of children and youth in urban school districts? (2) What needs to be done to advance the concept of cultural pluralism? Urban school districts were visited by teams which collected data through observation. These data reveal a wide variety of multicultural programs ranging from marginally to highly relevant and appropriate. Six strategies are described as important in promoting and improving multicultural programs.

INSERVICE EDUCATION

Hall, Gene E.; and Susan F. Loucks. "A Developmental Model for Determining Whether the Treatment is Actually Implemented," American Educational Research Journal, Vol. 14, No. 3, Summer 1977. pp. 263-276.

The concept of different Levels of Use of an innovation and its measurement are introduced and implications of this concept for research, evaluation, and change are described.

_____. "Teacher Concerns as a Basis for Facilitating and Personalizing Staff Development," Teachers College Record, Volume 80, No. 1, September 1978. pp. 36-53.

The concept of Stages of Concern (teacher concern) about innovation is proposed as a dimension

of the Concerns-Based Adoption Model that staff developers can use as an aid in diagnosing, planning, delivering, and assessing the effects of inservice education.

Harris, Ben M. Improving Staff Performance Through In-Service Education. Boston, Mass.: Allyn & Bacon, 1980. 406 pp.

A valuable reference; includes case studies and examples of training materials, instruments, and group and individual approaches.

Hawley, Willis D., et al. Assessment of Current Knowledge About the Effectiveness of School Desegregation Strategies. Volume I: Strategies for Effective Desegregation: A Synthesis of Findings. Nashville, Tennessee: Center for Education and Human Development Policy, Institute for Public Policy Studies, April 1981. 186 pp.

Of this report on "several strategies that seem to be effective in fostering the attainment of one or more goals of desegregation," almost one-fourth concerns strategies for inservice education. The discussion is based on evidence presented by Williams (1980), King, Carney, and Stasz (1980), Carney (1979b, 1979c, and 1979d), and from other studies of inservice education in desegregated schools. In addition to general discussions on conducting training for desegregation and types of training, there are subtopics in inservice education as related to (1) instructional methods; (2) curricula; (3) self-awareness, empathy, sensitivity, and interpersonal relations; (4) discipline techniques, (5) parent involvement in school affairs; and (6) training for principals and administrative staffs.

Johnson, Margo. Inservice Education: Priority for the '80s. Syracuse, N.Y.: National Council of States on Inservice Education, 1980. 52 pp. (Distributed by National Dissemination Center, Syracuse University, 123 Huntington Hall, Syracuse, NY 13210.)

Presents a timely rationale for "reforming" inservice education, citing social progress, economic disruption, demographic developments, and technological advances as sources of pressure for improvement. Concludes that pressure will not abate in the 1980s. Briefly discusses four state plans for inservice education: California, Florida, Massachusetts, and Michigan.

King, A. L. "The Impact of Desegregation and the Need for Inservice Education," in David L. Williams, Jr., ed. Research to Improve Family and School Life, Southwest Educational Development Laboratory Monograph Series. Austin: Southwest Educational Development Laboratory, 1981. pp. 1-26.

Reports on successful practices in planning and conducting inservice education for the improvement of education in desegregated/desegregating schools.

Luke, Robert A. Teacher-Centered In-Service Education: Planning and Products. Washirgton, D.C.: National Education Association, 1980.

For teachers and others who design teacher-centered inservice education. Reports on research-based, field-tested materials and procedures.

McLaughlin, Milbrey Wallin; and David D. Marsh. "Staff Development and School Change." Teachers College Record, Columbia University, Vol. 80, No. 1, September 1978. pp. 69-94.

Reports on findings of the Rand Corporation's "change agent study" of federally funded programs. Phase one (1973-1975) addressed factors affecting initiation and implementation of local projects. Phase two (1975-1977) examined institutional and project factors influencing continuation of innovation after termination of federal funds.

"Staff Developmwent: New Demands, New Realities, New Perspectives." Teachers College Record, Vol. 80, No. 1, September 1978.

This issue is composed of articles on inservice education for school improvement, focusing primarily on the teacher. But guest editor Ann Lieberman emphasizes a staff development approach that considers the effects of the entire staff on the individual teacher, rejecting "the idea of giving courses and workshops to . . . teachers in isolation from their peers and their school" (p. 1). Especially useful are articles on teacher concerns (Hall and Loucks, see above); school change (McLaughlin and Marsh, see above); guidelines for evaluation (Gary A. Griffin); and the theory and practice of inservice education for school change (Lynne Miller).

Williams, David L., Jr. "Validation of Effective Staff Development/Inservice Education Strategies." Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Boston, Mass., April 7-11, 1890.

This useful monograph reports on the popularity and effectiveness (as perceived by principals and other school administrators, teachers, parents,

and students) of desegregation strategies. These strategies are discussed under the following goal areas: (1) inservice education, (2) techniques for desegregating students and staff, (3) community relations, (4) crisis prevention and resolution, (5) multicultural education, (6) compensatory education, (7) administrative procedures, and (8) promoting positive race relations.

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Berman, Paul; and Milbrey Wallin McLaughlin. Federal Programs Supporting Educational Change, Vol. IV: The Findings in Review. Santa Monica, Calif.: The Rand Corporation, April 1975.

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APPENDICES

A. WORKSHOP PLANNING AND PREPARATION FORM

B. INSERVICE BUDGET SHEET

C. CONSULTANT SERVICES CHECKLIST

D. CONSULTANT DATA SHEET

E. CHECKLIST FOR WORKSHOP MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

APPENDIX A

WORKSHOP PLANNING AND PREPARATION FORM

Objectives	Activity/ Content	Time	Presenter/ Facilitator	Materials	Equipment	Grouping	Evaluation

APPENDIX B

INSERVICE BUDGET SHEET

Funds Available

1.	From district	$_____	
2.	From school	_____	
3.	From workshop participants	_____	
4.	From other sources	_____	
	Total Funds Available		$_____

Funds Required

1.	Site/Facility Rental			
	a. Rooms	$_____		
	b. Taxes	_____		
	c. Gratuities	_____		
	d. Other _____	_____		
	Total		$_____	
2.	Meal functions			
	a. Meals	_____		
	b. Taxes	_____		
	c. Gratuities	_____		
	d. Other _____	_____		
	Total		_____	
3.	Staff			
	a. Salary	_____		
	b. Stipend	_____		
	c. Substitute teachers	_____		
	d. Travel	_____		
	e. Lodging	_____		
	f. Per diem	_____		
	g. Other _____	_____		
	Total		_____	
4.	Consultants			
	a. Honorarium	_____		
	b. Travel	_____		
	c. Lodging	_____		
	d. Per diem	_____		
	e. Other _____	_____		
	Total		_____	
5.	Audio-visual equipment			
	a. _____	_____		
	b. _____	_____		
	c. _____	_____		
	Total		_____	
6.	Materials			
	a. _____	_____		
	b. _____	_____		
	c. _____	_____		
	Total		_____	
7.	Publicity			
	a. _____	_____		
	b. _____	_____		
8.	Other costs			
	a. _____	_____		
	b. _____	_____		
	c. _____	_____		
	Total		_____	
	Total Funds Required			$_____

APPENDIX C

CONSULTANT SERVICES CHECKLIST

I. School _____.

II. School/District Liaison person _____.

III. Workshop or other consulting activity _____.

IV. Consultant _____.
_____
Address

_____
Phone

V. Contact, brief, and schedule consultant

A. Agreement on services and honorarium (letter to follow)

B. Vita and social security number

C. Travel arrangements

D. Lodging arrangements

E. Information about services
Needs assessment, objectives, date(s), etc.

F. Equipment and material needed

G. Evaluation

VI. Performance of services

VII. Evaluation of consultant by

A. School/District

B. Participants

VIII. Follow Through

A. Consultant's evaluation of process and activities

B. Plan any future activities

C. Payment to consultant

APPENDIX D

CONSULTANT DATA SHEET

I. NAME:

II. QUALIFICATIONS:

III. WORK EXPERIENCE:

IV. AREA(S) OF EXPERTISE:

V. TOPIC OF PRESENTATION:

VI. METHOD(S) OF PRESENTATION:

VII. FEE:

VIII. AGENCY:

IX. LOCATION/ADDRESS:

X. PHONE NUMBER(S):

APPENDIX E

CHECKLIST FOR WORKSHOP MATERIALS AND EQUIPMENT

LOCATION/SITE _____

TYPE OF WORKSHOP _____

WORKSHOP DATE _____

DATE MATERIALS NEEDED _____

NAME TAGS ____

PROGRAMS ____

NEWSPRINT ____

MASKING TAPE ____

3 x 5 CARDS ____

THUMB TACKS ____

STRAIGHT PINS ____

FELT TIP PENS ____

FELT TIP MARKERS ____ COLORS _____

NEWS RELEASE FORMS ____

EVALUATION FORMS ____

STIPEND, REGISTRATION, OTHER SIGN-UP FORMS ____

PENCILS ____

AUDIO-VISUAL EQUIPMENT	MATERIALS AND OTHER
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____
_____	_____